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KERL'S FIRST LESSONS IN

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

UC-NRLF



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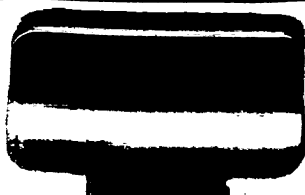
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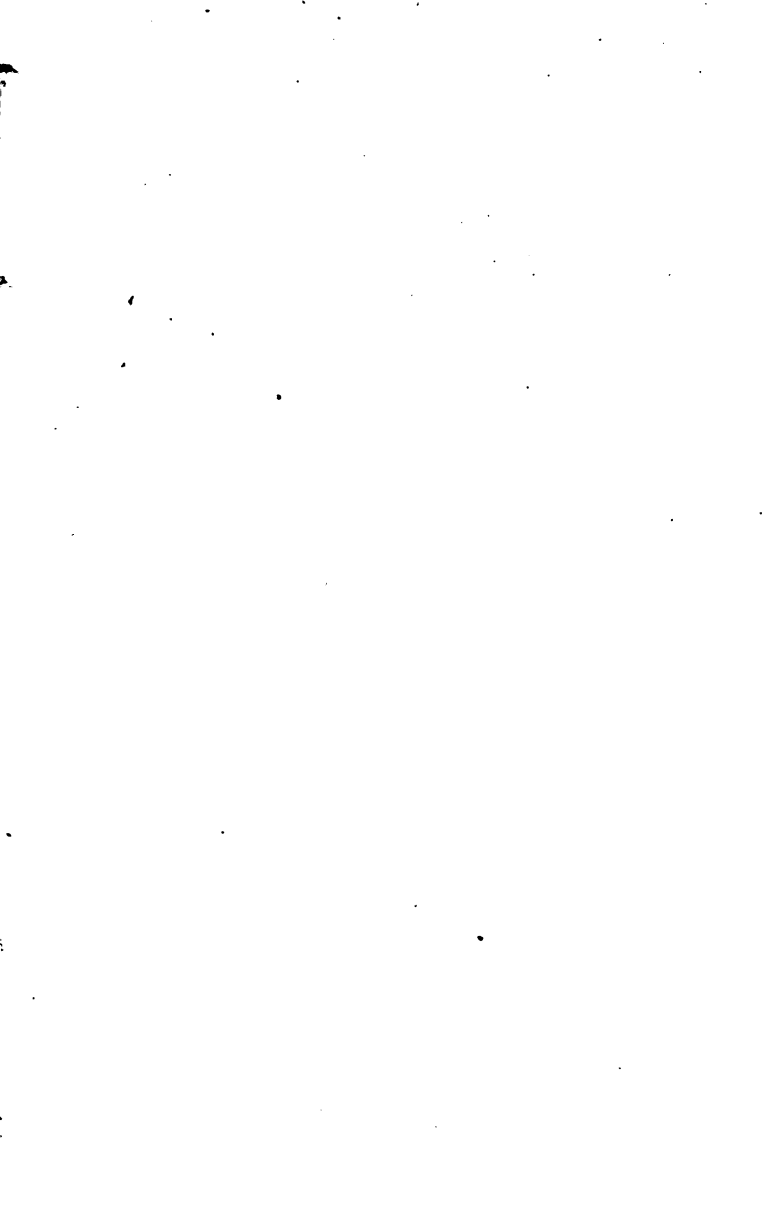
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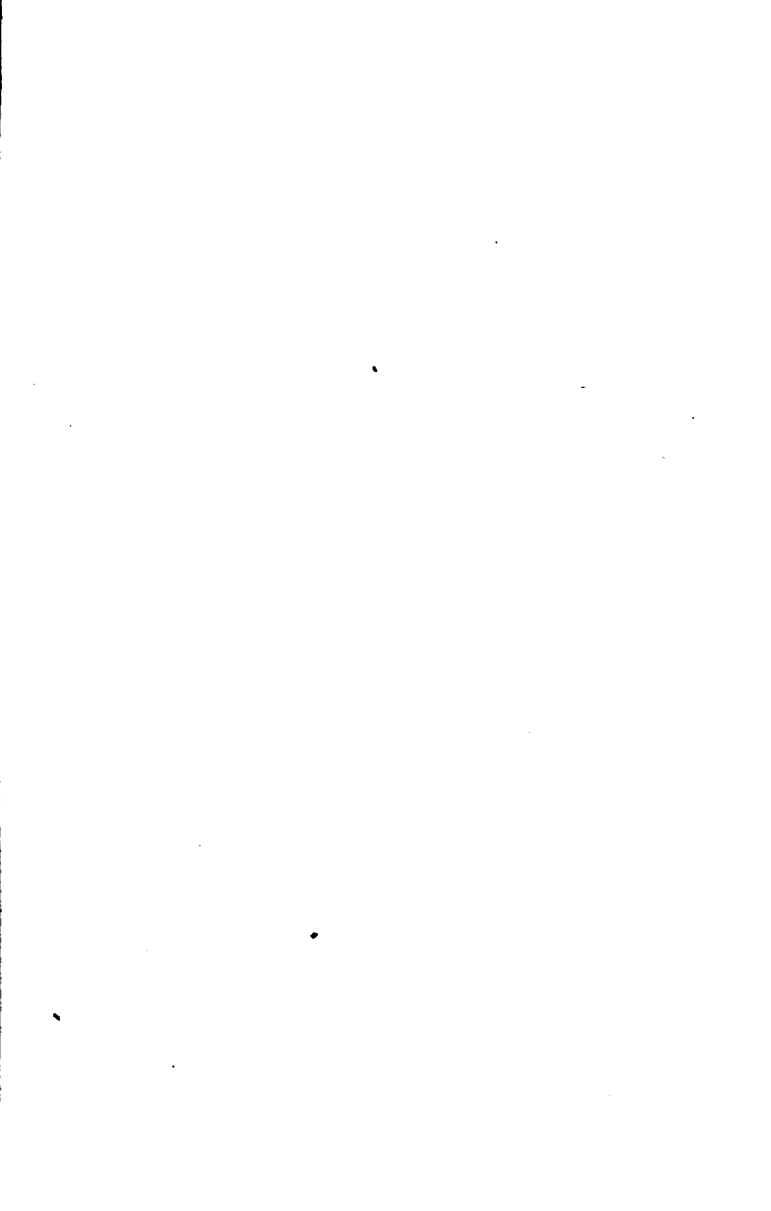
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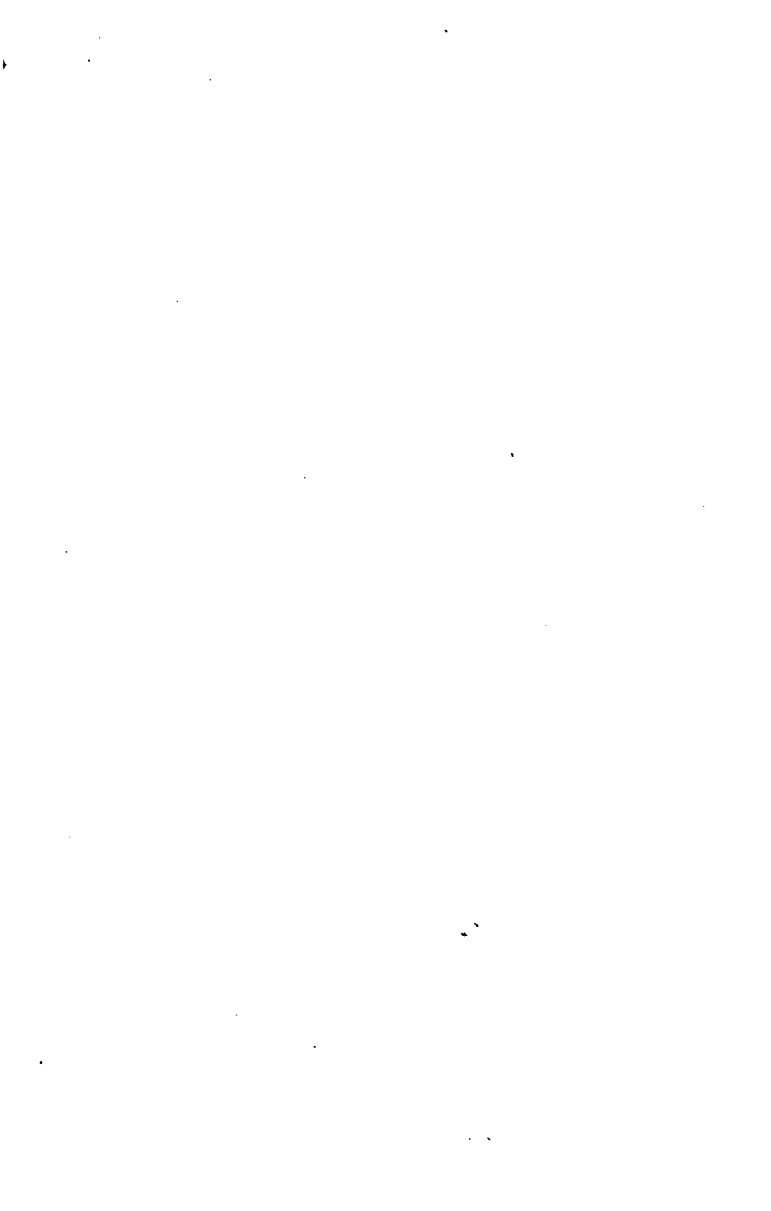
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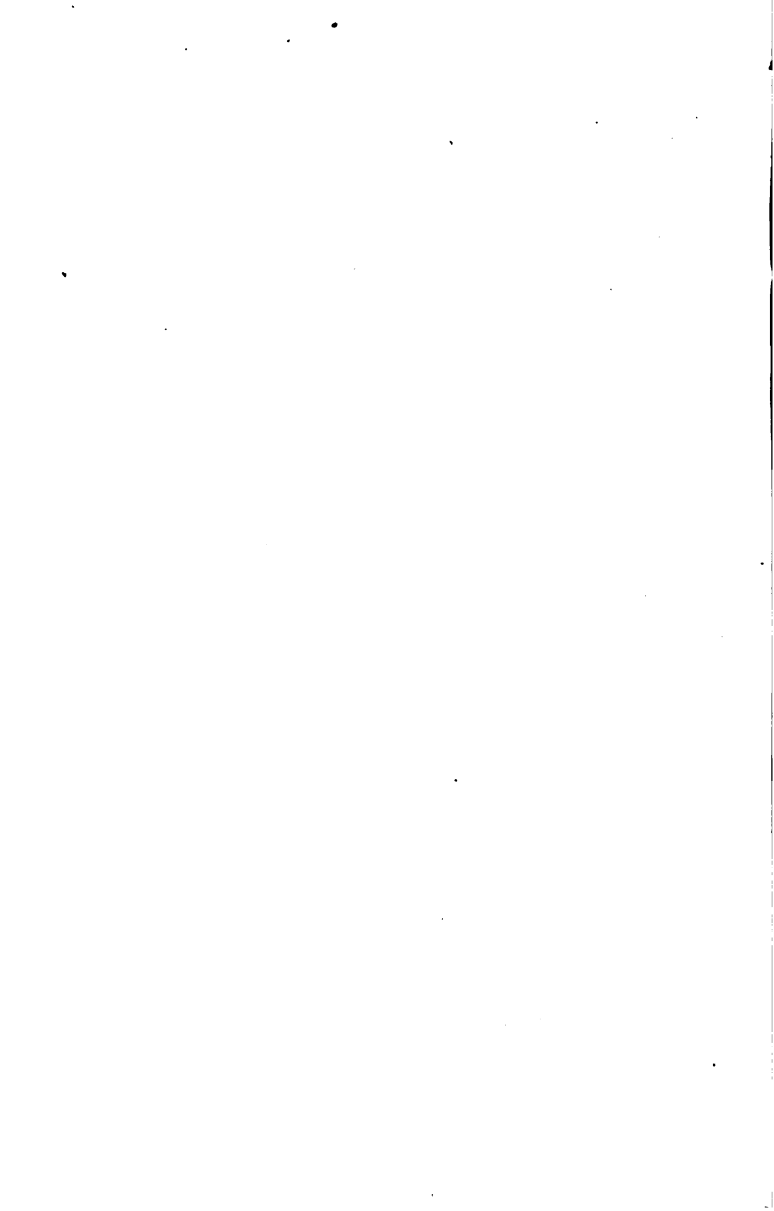
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FIRST LESSONS
IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY
SIMON KERL, A. M.,

AUTHOR OF 'AN ELEMENTARY ENGLISH GRAMMAR,' 'A COMMON-SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR,' AND 'A COMPREHENSIVE ENGLISH GRAMMAR.'



NEW YORK:
IVISON, PHINNEY, BLAKEMAN, & CO.
CHICAGO: S. C. GRIGGS & CO.
1865.

KERL'S

SERIES OF GRAMMARS.

Kerl's First Lessons in English Grammar.—Designed as an introduction to the Common-School Grammar. The plan, definitions, observations, and exercises, are in the simplest style, and suited to the capacity of children.

Kerl's Common-School Grammar.—A simple, thorough, and practical grammar of the English language. Great care has been taken to make it, if possible, the best treatise of its kind now before the public. The parts relating to Idioms, Analysis, and False Syntax, will be found particularly valuable.

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PRINTED BY
GEO. C. RAND & AVERY.

PREFACE.

THE following treatise is an attempt to put the science of grammar upon a more simple, natural, and practical basis. That the schools of our country are generally restless under the present systems of grammar, and that the results obtained from the study of this science are not generally satisfactory, may be taken as conclusive evidence that the time has come for some radical change in this department of education.

It is rather remarkable at how early an age children learn to speak their mother-tongue; and this fact proves that they are also able to understand the great and obvious principles of language early, — certainly before their minds are overrun with those errors of expression which seem to spring up, in every community, as naturally and inevitably as weeds.

To see what is true or right in the niceties of grammar, is often a puzzling matter even to persons of mature and cultivated judgment; and it is unreasonable to suppose that young children can master dim subtleties, or that they will take pleasure in what must appear to them incomprehensible and useless.

It is therefore probably best to teach them as much practical grammar as possible, but with just as little of the science as will suffice for this purpose. Let them learn to avoid, as soon as they can, all the common errors of language; and when they are older, and have time to study farther, they can learn more of the science in one year than many of them now learn in two or three years. The common mode of teaching grammar seems to us rather an inverted one. Children are worried for years in the abstractions of analysis and parsing, from which they often acquire a loathing and permanent dislike to grammar itself; yet, after all, when they quit school, most of them know, in regard to language, but little of that for which especially they were sent to school, — namely, to speak and write their mother-tongue with propriety.

We have divided our subject into three principal parts; *definitions, inflections, and constructions*. The first part comprises a bundle of about one hundred definitions, — all the important ones needed in the study of grammar. In making these definitions, we endeavored to embody in them truth, brevity, simplicity, and uniformity. In the second part we have given about all the inflections of our language; because these things are not only needed, but they require simply memory, and can be learned in early life just as well as afterwards. The third part comprises nearly the whole circuit of *syntax*, with pithy exercises to teach the pupil how to avoid all the common errors. The remaining matter is subordinate, and gives roundness and finish to the whole subject. A more minute analysis of the contents is given on the next page.

SYNOPSIS.

PART I. — DEFINITIONS.

1. THE few great ideas which lie at the basis of grammar, and from which the science unfolds itself.
2. Definitions of the parts of speech.
3. Definitions of the properties of the parts of speech.
4. Definitions of the classes into which the parts of speech are divided.

(Given after the properties, because somewhat dependent on them.)

5. A circuit of exercises, to give the pupil a clear and practical knowledge of the preceding principles, and to show him the general construction of sentences.

PART II. — INFLECTIONS.

1. How gender is expressed.
2. How number is expressed.
3. How case is expressed.
4. Declension of nouns and pronouns.
5. List of irregular verbs.
6. Conjugation of verbs.
7. How the degrees of comparison are expressed.
8. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, classified, and illustrated by examples.

(Some of these words are substitutes for inflections.)

PART III. — CONSTRUCTIONS.

1. The rules of syntax, with examples to show correct construction and incorrect construction in contrast.
2. Parsing.
3. Analysis.
4. The remaining kinds of error.

APPENDIX.

1. Letters, syllables, and words.
2. Rules for spelling.
3. Derivation.
4. Capital letters.
5. Italics.
6. Punctuation.
7. Conclusion.

REMARKS.

| denotes separation. — is placed between equivalent expressions.

A number placed over a word shows which Rule of Syntax should be applied to it. What is to be committed to memory by the pupil, is printed in large type, or is distinguished by being numbered with heavy black figures.

The few technical or difficult words which we have been obliged to use, the teacher should explain.



FIRST LESSONS
IN
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.



PART I.

• DEFINITIONS.

THOUGHT AND ITS EXPRESSION.

1. We *think*, or have *thoughts*.
2. We express our thoughts by means of *words*.
3. Words are either spoken or written.
4. The expressing of our thoughts by means of words, is called *language*, or *speech*.
5. Language consists of many thousands of words ; but they can all be divided into nine classes, called *Parts of Speech*.
6. The PARTS OF SPEECH are *Nouns*, *Pronouns*, *Articles*, *Adjectives*, *Verbs*, *Adverbs*, *Prępositions*, *Conjunctions*, and *Interjections*.
7. To these nine classes of words belong eight chief properties ; *Gender*, *Person*, *Number*, *Case*, *Voice*, *Mood*, *Tense*, and *Comparison*.

These classes of words, and their properties, are based mainly on the following ten things or ideas: *Objects, Actions, Qualities, Sex, Number, Relation,* Manner, Time, Place, and Degree.*

The teacher can not spend an hour better with his class than in explaining the preceding paragraph, and thence the remainder of the section.



PARTS OF SPEECH.

NOUNS.

When we look around us, we naturally first notice objects. The words *John, Mary, tree, house, street, man, horse, apple, flower, rose, chair, desk, book*, are, all of them, words that denote objects, and such words are called *nouns*.

8. A **Noun** is a name.

Ex.—“Now bright the *sun* upon *St. Lawrence* smiles,
Her million *lilies*, and her thousand *isles*.”

What animals are on farms? What things can boys eat? What things do children play with? What objects did you see this morning, on your way to school? Who are your classmates? What would you call the words you have mentioned?

You can generally tell whether a word is a noun or not, by considering whether it denotes something that you can see, hear, taste, smell, or feel, or think of as being a person or thing.

Tell me which are the nouns in the following sentences: —

Lions and ostriches are found in Africa.

John and Joseph drove the horses to the pasture.

Pinks and roses are blooming in the garden.

Apples, peaches, and melons, are brought to market.

* Considered here chiefly in regard to Person and Case.

PRONOUNS.

When objects are near to us, or are already known by having been mentioned, we do not always use their names, but certain little words in stead of the names. If I say, "William promised Mary that William would lend Mary William's grammar, that Mary might study the grammar," you can easily see that the sentence is clumsy and disagreeable, because I have so often repeated the words *William*, *Mary*, and *grammar*. But if I say, "William promised Mary that *he* would lend *her* *his* grammar, that *she* might study *it*," you notice that the sentence is much more simple and agreeable, because I have used the little words *he*, *she*, and *it*, for the nouns *William*, *Mary*, and *grammar*, in stead of repeating these nouns. *Pronoun* means *for a noun*; and pronouns are so called because they are used *for nouns*, or *in stead of nouns*.

9. A Pronoun is a word used in stead of a noun.

Ex. — "*My* mother! when *I* learned that *thou* wast dead, Say, wast *thou* conscious of the tears *I* shed?"

The most common pronouns are *I*, *my*, *myself*, *mine*, *me*, *we*, *our*, *ourselves*, *ours*, *us*, *you*, *your*, *yourself*, *yours*, *ye*, *thou*, *thy*, *thyslf*, *thine*, *thee*, *he*, *his*, *him*, *himself*, *she*, *her*, *herself*, *hers*, *it*, *itself*, *its*, *they*, *their*, *theirs*, *them*, *themselves*, *who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *what*, and *that*. The easiest way in which you can generally distinguish a pronoun from a noun, is to consider whether the word denotes an object, without being itself the name of the object. "*I* saw *you*." Here *I* denotes me, without being my name; and *you* denotes the person spoken to, without being his name.

Put suitable pronouns for the words in Italic letters:—

John has learned *John's* lesson. Mary has torn *Mary's*

book. The apple lay under the *apple's* tree. The apples lay under the *apples'* tree. Thomas has come home, and *Thomas* is well. Lucy is pretty, and *Lucy* knows it. The gun was brought, but the *gun* was out of order. Laura was disobedient, and therefore *Laura's* teacher punished *Laura*. Julia will buy you a basket, if *Julia* can buy the *basket* cheap.

ARTICLES.

Most objects exist in classes ; and when we use merely the ordinary name of something, we generally mean the class or object at large or indefinitely ; as, *tree, apples, water*. To show that we mean only one object of a kind, and no particular one, or that we mean some particular object or objects, we generally place the word *a* or *an*, or *the*, before the name ; as, *a tree, the tree, the trees*. If I say, " Give me *a* book, *an* apple," you understand that any book or apple will answer my purpose ; but if I say, " Give me *the* book, *the* books," you understand that I want some particular book or books. These words, *a* or *an* and *the*, which are very often used before nouns, and which generally show how we select the objects of which we are speaking, are called *articles*.

10. An Article is the word *the*, *a*, or *an*, placed before a noun to limit its meaning.

Ex. — "A man he was to all *the* country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds *a* year."

Place **A** before each of the following nouns ; then **THE** :—

House, book, pen, boy, parrot, pink, newspaper.

Place **AN** before each of the following nouns ; then **THE** :—

AN, eagle, Indian, ox, owl, arbor, hour, undertaker.

VERBS.

We can not think of an object, without thinking something of it. Therefore every thought or saying implies at least two things: something of which we think or speak, and something that we think or say of it; the former is called the *subject*, and the latter the *predicate*. “Rivers flow;” here *rivers* is the subject, and *flow* is the predicate. “Deep rivers flow smoothly;” here *deep rivers* is the subject, and *flow smoothly* is the predicate.

11. A **Subject** is a word or phrase denoting that of which something is said.

12. A **Predicate** is a word or phrase denoting what is said of a subject.

13. A **Proposition** is a subject combined with its predicate.

Ex. — “Rome | was an ocean of flame.”

When we speak of any object, we generally tell either what it *is*, what it *does*, or what *is done* to it.

1. Flowers *are beautiful*. The ant *is an insect*.

2. Birds *sing*. Boys *play*. Carpenters *build houses*.

3. Fields *are ploughed*. The corn *was ground*.

The words *are*, *is*, *sing*, *play*, *build*, etc., by means of which we say things of the subjects, are called *verbs*.

14. A **Verb** is a word used to express the act or state of a subject.

Ex. — “His brow *was sad*; his eye beneath

Flashed like a falchion from its sheath.”

“The river *washes* away the soil;” here *washes* is a verb, because it tells what the river does. “The river *is* deep;” here *is* is a verb, because it tells something of the river, or serves to show in what state it is. Sometimes we

say that the verb *affirms* or *predicates* something of its subject. This is nearly the same as to tell you that it says something of that about which we are talking. We are sometimes obliged to use hard words in books, for the sake of greater accuracy or exactness. By dressing soldiers in a way different from that in which citizens are dressed, we can easily distinguish them from citizens. So every science has generally, in its words, a dress of its own.

A proposition, and why; the subject, and why; the predicate, and why; the verb, and why:—

Frogs leap. Ducks swim. The wind whistles. The thunder rolls. The lightning flashed. Clouds were moving. He recited his lesson. The door creaked. The snake crept into the grass. Out flew the partridges.

Put a suitable subject to each of the following predicates:—

Is happy; knows nothing; am sick; art released; grew rapidly; was neglected; were neglected; went away; spoke sensibly; replied; stepped forth; retreated; should obey their parents; was a great man.

Say something of each of the following objects, by telling what they are:—

Street, grass, hay, ice, stars, mountains, room, table.

Say something of each of the following objects, by telling what they do:—

Horse, farmers, trees, servant, hogs, tailor, scholar.

Say something of each following object, by telling what is done to it:—

Lesson, bonnet, bridge, yard, window, John, newspaper.

ADJECTIVES.

We notice every day that objects are not all alike, even when of the same general kind. Some roses, for instance, are *red*; some are *white*; and some are *yellow*. An apple may be *large* or *small*; *red*, *green*, or *yellow*; *hard* or *mellow*; *mealy* or *juicy*. Sometimes we notice several things

of interest in the same object. A river, for instance, may be *deep, broad, clear, and swift*. The value of objects, or the regard we have for them, depends not a little on their qualities; and hence it is necessary for us to have words that will show the qualities of objects, or describe objects. These words are called *adjectives*. Sometimes we use words that do not express the qualities of objects, but that still serve to show what objects are meant. Such words are *this, that, each, every, either, first, second, one, two, three*, etc. These words are also called *adjectives*. The word *adjective* means *throwing to, adding to, or joining to*; an adjective generally modifies the idea of an object, by joining to it that of some quality.

15. An Adjective is a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun.

Ex. — “*Sweet was the sound, when oft, at evening’s close,
Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.*”

“*A good pupil will be industrious.*” *Good* and *industrious* are adjectives, because they describe the pupil; that is, they describe the object *meant* by the word *pupil*.

“*This tree bore five bushels of apples.*” *This* is an adjective, because it makes the indefinite word *tree* mean a particular one; and *five* is an adjective, because it makes the indefinite word *bushels* mean a particular number.

Tell which are the adjectives, and why:—

Warm weather; dark clouds; shady lawns; tall trees; a white cloud; yonder house; a hollow tree; a steep bluff.

Put suitable adjectives to each of the following nouns; and tell what each of the objects is, by using the same adjective:—

Man,¹ boy, workman, star, rose, river, book, day, crow, swan, pink, winter, snow, wood, stones, lead.

A *strong* man. The man is *strong*.

ADVERBS.

Not only are objects different, but their actions are also different, even when of the same general kind. People do not all walk alike, nor talk alike, nor write alike. Hence we often use such words as *well*, *badly*, *fast*, *slowly*, *gracefully*, *awkwardly*, *hastily*, etc., to describe actions, or to distinguish them from one another. These words are called *adverbs*, because they are generally *added to verbs*. Sometimes we distinguish actions by telling simply *where* or *when* they are done; as, "It rained *everywhere*;" "It rained *seldom*."

We not only use words to describe objects and their actions, but we often use words to show in what degrees, objects or actions have their qualities; as, *very* good; *tolerably* fast; *more* rapidly; *most* rapidly. And these words, which express degree, and are joined to adjectives and adverbs, are also called *adverbs*.

16. An Adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Ex. — "How *tunefully* through woods and meadows *flow*
The brooks, *now free* from winter's ice and snow!"

"John studies *diligently*;" here *diligently* is an adverb, because it shows the *mode* of doing that act which is *meant* by the word *studies*.

"This apple is *very* good;" here *very* is an adverb, because it shows in what degree the apple is good. "The cars run *uncommonly* fast;" here *uncommonly* is an adverb, because it shows in what degree the cars run fast.

The adverbs, and why:—

To speak fluently. To return soon. To flow smoothly.
Horribly ugly. Very long. Fully ripe. Nearly so.
The young forget quickly, but they feel keenly.

PREPOSITIONS.

By looking around us, we can easily see that the great mass of objects composing this world, is held together in a thousand different ways. "Houses are *on* the ground; cellars are *under* houses; and trees grow *around* houses." "Boats run *up* and *down* rivers, and rivers flow *between* hills."

To describe objects and all their actions and states, we have not a sufficient number of words made especially for this purpose, or we should have to use these words disagreeably often. Hence we often describe objects, actions, or their qualities, by showing simply how they are related to other objects; or we make our thoughts pictures of parts of the world, by showing in these pictures how the corresponding things are linked together. Such linking words, that express relation, are the words *on*, *under*, *around*, *up*, *down*, and *between*, as used above; and such words are called *prepositions*, because they are generally placed before the nouns and pronouns with which they make descriptive phrases. *Preposition* comes from *pre*, before, and *positio*, placing; the word therefore means *placing before*.

17. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation between a following noun or pronoun and some other word.

Ex. — "And the *sheen* OF their *spears* was like *stars* ON the *sea*,
When the blue waves roll nightly ON deep *Galilee*."

18. An Adjunct, or Prepositional Phrase, is a preposition with the word or words required after it to complete the sense.

Ex. — "The *snows of Siberia*." "Red apples hung *on the tree*."

An adjunct has generally the meaning of an *adjective* or an *adverb*.

"The roses *by* my window are *in* full bloom." *By* is a preposition, because it shows the relation between *roses* and *window*, or the phrase *by my window* shows what roses are meant; and *in* is a preposition, because it shows the relation between *are* and *bloom*, or the phrase *in bloom* shows in what condition the roses are or exist.

The preposition, and between what it shows the relation : —

A path through the woods. A pound of meat. The bridge over the river. A rule against whispering. To go to school. To return from school. To ride in a car. To set on the table. To creep under a hedge. Desirous of fame. Drawn by horses. Kind to playmates.

CONJUNCTIONS.

We frequently use certain little words simply to connect words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, and to show the dependence of the parts thus connected. When you hear such words as *and*, *but*, *because*, you at once know that something more is to come, and that it bears a certain relation to what has been said. If I say, "John writes *and* ciphers;" "John spilt his ink on the desk *and* on the floor;" "John writes every day, *and* I generally look at his writing;" you can see that the word *and* adds something more to what has been said, or joins two words, two phrases, or two propositions together; and since *conjunction* means *joining together*, this word, and others like it, have been called *conjunctions*.

19. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words, phrases, or propositions.

"I do not, Lord, wish to appear more beauteous, rich, *or* gay;
But make me wiser every year, *and* better every day."

"He rides, *if* he is sick." "He rides, *though* he is sick."
"He rides, *because* he is sick." Here *if*, *though*, and *because*, are conjunctions, because each connects two propositions.

The conjunction, and what it connects:—

Roses and pinks. Good but dear. In peace and in war.
The buds of spring or the fruits of autumn. He studies
in the morning, and rides in the evening.

INTERJECTIONS.

When we see, hear, or in any other way notice things, our feelings are often suddenly excited, and we utter, almost unconsciously, certain little words that show these emotions. Words of this kind are such as *O, oh, ah, pish, tut, aha, pshaw*, etc., which you have doubtless often heard. They generally express surprise, wonder, joy, grief, anger, or contempt. *Interjection* means *throwing between*; and since these words are loosely thrown between other words in speaking, they have been called *interjections*.

20. An Interjection is a word that expresses an emotion, and is not connected in construction with any other word.

Ex. — “*O* thou beyond what verse or speech can tell,
My guide, my friend, my best-beloved, *farewell* !”

“Day broke ; but then, *oh* ! what a scene was that battlefield !” *Oh* is an interjection ; because it expresses the sudden emotion of the speaker, and the remaining words of the sentence can make sense without it.

SUGGESTION TO THE TEACHER. — Take a walk with your class during some leisure interval, and teach them the parts of speech from the surrounding scenery.

PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

GENDER.

When I say *John*, I mean a male ; when I say *Mary*, I mean a female ; when I say *child*, I can mean either a male or a female ; and when I say *knife*, I mean neither a male nor a female. Hence some nouns are the names of males ;

some are the names of females ; some are the names of either males or females ; and some are the names of neither males nor females. From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of nouns and pronouns which is called *gender*.

21. Gender is that property of nouns and pronouns which distinguishes objects in regard to sex.

22. There are four genders ; the *masculine*, the *feminine*, the *common*, and the *neuter*.

23. Masculine. A noun or pronoun is of the *masculine gender*, when it denotes a male. *Man*.

24. Feminine. A noun or pronoun is of the *feminine gender*, when it denotes a female. *Woman*.

25. Common. A noun or pronoun is of the *common gender*, when it denotes either a male or a female. *Person*.

26. Neuter. A noun or pronoun is of the *neuter gender*, when it denotes neither a male nor a female. *House*.

The nouns *man*, *boy*, and *king*, are of the masculine gender, because they denote males ; the nouns *woman*, *girl*, and *cow*, are of the feminine gender, because they denote females ; the nouns *parent*, *cousin*, and *bird*, are of the common gender, because they can be applied to either males or females ; and the nouns *house*, *tree*, and *chair*, are of the neuter gender, because they are the names of neither males nor females.

27. An inanimate object is sometimes regarded as a person, and it then assumes a suitable sex. Such an object is said to be *personified*.

“ And *Hope* enchanting smiled, and waved *her* golden hair.”

Here *Hope* is said to be feminine by *personification*.

The gender, and why:—

Father, mother, parent, hand, son, daughter, child, infant, brother, sister, Julius, Julia, snow, book, mouse, he, she, it, we, they, nephew, niece, neighbor, friend.

PERSON.

In speaking, we can refer either to ourselves, to the person spoken to, or to the person or thing spoken of; and there are no other ways of speaking. From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of nouns, pronouns, and verbs, which is called *person*.

28. Person is that property of words which shows whether the speaker is meant, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of.

29. There are three persons; the *first*, the *second*, and the *third*.

30. First. A noun or pronoun is of the *first person*, when it denotes the speaker. "*I saw you.*"

31. Second. A noun or pronoun is of the *second person*, when it denotes the person spoken to. "*You saw me.*"

32. Third. A noun or pronoun is of the *third person*, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of. "*He saw it.*"

"*I Paul* have written it;" here *I* and *Paul* are of the first person, because they denote the person speaking. In the sentence, "*Thomas, your | horse* has run away," *Thomas* and *your* are of the second person, because they denote the person spoken to; while the word *horse* is of the third person, because it denotes the object spoken of.

When an inanimate object is addressed, it is regarded

as a person ; as, “ But thou, O *Hope*, with eyes so fair.”

The nouns and pronouns, and why ; the person, and why : —

I, you, he, she, we, my, myself, yourself, herself, them.

Thou art, O God, the life and light
Of all this wondrous world we see.

Change into the other persons : —

John writes. The girls study. Henry, you may play.

NUMBER.

There are not only many kinds of objects in the world, but generally many objects of each kind. In speaking, we often wish to show that we mean but one object of a kind, or else more than one ; and we use words accordingly. From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property which is called *number*.

33. Number is that property of words which shows whether one object is meant, or more than one.

34. There are two numbers ; the *singular* and the *plural*.

35. Singular. A noun or pronoun is of the *singular number*, when it denotes but one object. *Book*.

36. Plural. A noun or pronoun is of the *plural number*, when it denotes more objects than one. *Books*.

The nouns *Albert*, *tree*, and *girl*, are of the singular number, because each denotes but one object ; the nouns *boys*, *trees*, and *girls*, are of the plural number, because each denotes more objects than one.

The number, and why : —

Rose, roses, partridge, partridges, goose, geese, tooth, teeth, boy, boys, I, we, me, us, he, they, she, them.

CASE.

When we speak of an object, we either say that it *is* something, that it *does* something, or that something *is done* to it; as, "The dove *is white*;" "The dove *coos*;" "The dove *was caught*." This relation of an object to what is said of it, is called *case*. When something is done, the act often affects some object; as, "The dove *eats corn*." This relation of the act to what is acted upon, is also called *case*. Almost every object in the world belongs to some other object, or is a part of some other; as, "*Mary's* dove;" "The *dove's* feathers."

All these relations of objects produce, in the expression of our thoughts, those relations between words which are called *cases*.

37. **Case** is that property of nouns and pronouns which shows how they are used in the construction of sentences.

38. There are three cases; the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

39. **Nominative**. A noun or pronoun is in the *nominative case*, when it is the subject of a predicate-verb. "*I ran*." *Who* ran? "*James fell*." *Who* fell?

40. **Possessive**. A noun or pronoun is in the *possessive case*, when it denotes possession. "*My hat*."

41. **Objective**. A noun or pronoun is in the *objective case*, when it is the object of a transitive verb or a preposition. "You sent *me* to *him*."

A *transitive verb* is a verb that implies an act done by one person or thing to another; as, *strike*. The object of a transitive verb or a preposition is the noun or pronoun which completes its relation; as, "He struck *me* with his *hand*." Struck *whom*? with *what*?

A *predicate-verb* is a verb that makes a predicate, or the chief part of a predicate.

“John shot some *squirrels* in my *father's* | *field*.” Here the word *John* is said to be in the nominative case, because it denotes the doer of something, or the person of whom something is said or predicated; the words *squirrels* and *field* are in the objective case, because *squirrels* shows what he shot, and *field* shows in what; and the word *father's* is in the possessive case, because it denotes the owner.

42. Same Case. A noun or pronoun is generally in the *same case* as another, when it denotes the same person or thing.

Ex. — “*I myself* went.” “*Smith the banker* is our neighbor.”

The *Italic* words of each sentence, denoting the same person, are in the *same case*.

The nouns and pronouns, and why; the case, and why:—

Jesus wept. Farmers plough. Iron rusts. He works.

John found Mary's book. Lucy's lamb nips the grass.

Albert wrote his name on his book. We love them.

I thank you. A flock of blackbirds is on the tree.

Johnson the lawyer is a brother of Johnson the doctor.

A more detailed consideration of the subject of case is deferred to the Rules of Syntax.

VOICE.

When an act is done by one person or thing to another, we can state the fact in two ways, — either by telling what the doer does, or by telling what is done to the person or thing acted upon; as, “Merchants *sell* goods;” “Goods *are sold* by merchants.” From this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of verbs which is called *voice*.

43. Voice is that property of verbs which shows whether the subject does, or receives, the act.

44. There are two voices; the *active* and the *passive*.

45. Active. A verb is in the *active voice*, when it represents its subject as acting. “*I struck.*”

46. Passive. A verb is in the *passive voice*, when it represents its subject as acted upon. “*I was struck.*”

If I say, “The servant *scoured* the floor,” *scoured* is said to be in the active voice, because it represents the subject, servant, as acting upon the floor; but if I say, “The floor *was scoured* by the servant,” *was scoured* is said to be in the passive voice, because it represents the subject, floor, as acted upon.

The verbs, and why; the voice, and why: —

I called. I was called. He caught. He was caught.

I see. I am seen. He should send. He should be sent.

Snow protects plants. Plants are protected by snow. The sun is melting the snow. The snow is melted by the sun. A servant brought the horse. The horse was brought by a servant.

MOOD.

Many actions really take place; but many are only in the mind, or people bear certain relations to them. If I say, “*I write,*” I express something as a matter of fact; “*I may or can write,*” I express not what is matter of fact, yet may become such, or I simply declare my relation to the act; “*If I were writing,*” I express a mere supposition; “*Write,*” I request it to be done; “*To write,*” “*Writing,*” I simply speak of the act. These different modes of expressing the verb, grammarians call *moods*; or, from this distinction in the use of words, we get that property of verbs which is called *mood*.

47. Mood is that property of verbs which shows how the act or state is referred to its subject.

An act or state may be referred to its subject as something *real*; or as something *merely supposed*; or as something *modified by a relation*; or as something *commanded*; or as something *merely assumed*, and *not predicated*.

48. There are four moods ; the *indicative*, the *subjunctive*, the *potential*, and the *imperative*.

49. **Indicative.** A verb in the *indicative mood* expresses an actual occurrence or fact.

Ex. — “ *I went.* ” “ *It snows.* ” “ *God created the world.* ”

50. This mood can be used interrogatively.

Ex. — “ ‘ *Is there no hope ?* ’ the sick man said.”

51. **Subjunctive.** A verb in the *subjunctive mood* may express, —

1. Something as future and uncertain.

Ex. — “ If he *be* at home, I shall speak to him.”

2. A mere wish or supposition.

Ex. — “ O *had* I the wings of a dove ! ” But I have not.

“ If he *were* at home, I would speak to him.” But he is not.

“ *Had* he *been* at home, I would have spoken to him.”

3. A mere conclusion, conception, or consequence.

Ex. — “ It *were* useless to resist.” (Would be.)

“ If it *were* done when it is done, then ‘ *t were* well
It *were* done quickly.’ — *Shakespeare.* ”

52. **Potential.** A verb in the *potential mood* may express, —

1. Power. “ I *can* go.” “ I *could* go.”

2. Possibility. “ It *may* rain.” “ It *might* rain.”

3. Liberty or permission. “ You *may* go.”

4. Inclination. “ I *would* go.”

5. Duty. “ I *should* go.”

6. Necessity. “ I *must* go.”

7. A wish. “ *May* you prosper.”

53. This mood can be used interrogatively.

Ex. — “ *Can* Flattery *soothe* the dull, cold ear of death ? ”

The words which express the potential mood are *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*.

54. Imperative. A verb in the *imperative mood* may express, —

1. Command. “John, *sit up*.”
2. Entreaty. “*Forgive* our trespasses.”
3. Exhortation. “*Learn* what is useful.”
4. Permission. “*Go* in peace.”

We *command* inferiors, *entreat* superiors, *exhort* equals, and *permit* in compliance with the wishes of others.

There are two other forms of the verb, — the *Infinitive* and the *Participle*, which do not predicate the act or state of a subject. Most grammarians call the infinitive the *infinitive mood*; some call the participle the *participial mood*. Both forms may be considered a mood; but it seems to us that they are sufficiently distinguished by being called the *Infinitive* and the *Participle*.

“*I study* ;” here *study* is in the indicative mood, because it expresses something as really taking place. “*If I study*,” “*If I were studying* ;” here *study* and *were studying* are in the subjunctive mood, because the former expresses only what may take place hereafter, and the latter a mere supposition. “*I can study* ;” here *can study* is in the potential mood, because it expresses only my ability in regard to studying. “*Study* ;” here *study* is in the imperative mood, because it is given as a command to the person spoken to. “*To study*,” “*Studying* ;” here the actions are spoken of abstractly, that is, without referring them to any particular person or thing.

For exercises under Mood and Tense, see pp. 42, 44. The circuit of sentences which follows this entire body of definitions, and which shows the general construction of the English language, should be much used by the teacher, in order to give the pupils a living knowledge of the subject.

T E N S E .

We can not separate our actions from time. Besides, the time of an act, or whether the act is completed or not, is often a matter of great importance to us. Time may naturally be divided into three great divisions, — *present*, *past*, and *future*; and in each of these periods we may speak of an act as simply taking place, or as completed. Thus: “I *write*,” “I *have written* ;” “I *wrote*,” “I *had written* ;” “I *shall write*,” “I *shall have written*.” These different ways of using verbs to distinguish time, are called *tenses*.

55. Tense is that property of verbs which shows the distinctions of time.

56. There are six tenses: the *present*, the *present-perfect*; the *past*, the *past-perfect*; the *future*, and the *future-perfect*.

57. **Present.** A verb in the *present tense* denotes a present act or state. “I *see*.”

58. **Present-perfect.** A verb in the *present-perfect tense* represents something as completed in present time. “I *have seen*.”

59. **Past.** A verb in the *past tense* denotes simply a past act or state. “I *saw*.”

60. **Past-perfect.** A verb in the *past-perfect tense* represents something as completed in past time. “I *had seen*.”

61. **Future.** A verb in the *future tense* denotes simply a future act or state. “I *shall see*.”

62. **Future-perfect.** A verb in the *future-perfect tense* represents something as completed in future time. “I *shall have seen*.”

The following sentences illustrate the six tenses: "The tree *blossoms*," "The tree *has blossomed*;" "The tree *blossomed*," "The tree *had blossomed*;" "The tree *will blossom*," "The tree *will have blossomed*."

The following are the chief irregularities in the use of the tenses.

63. The tenses of the subjunctive mood move forward in time.

INDICATIVE: "I *am* here now." "I *was* there *then*."

SUBJUNCTIVE: "If I *be* here to-morrow." "If I *were* there *now*."

64. The tenses of the potential mood, when used subjunctively, move forward in time.

Ex. — "I *should think* you *might risk* it;" i. e., now or hereafter.

65. Sometimes *when*, *till*, *as soon as*, or a similar term, carries the present or the present-perfect tense into future time.

Ex. — "When he *comes*, I will send him to you."

"When he *has finished* the work, I will pay him."

The teacher should explain the foregoing paragraphs more fully.

FORMS OF THE TENSES.

66. The Forms of a Tense are the different ways in which it can be expressed.

Ex. — He *strikes*, *does strike*, *is striking*, *is struck*, *striket*h.

In all these different ways the verb *strike* can be expressed in the present tense of the indicative mood.

67. There are five forms; the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *passive*, the *progressive*, and the *ancient*, or the *solemn style*.

68. The Common Form is the verb expressed in the most simple and ordinary manner.

Ex. — "Time *flies*." "He *went* home."

69. The Emphatic Form denotes emphasis, expressed by *do* or *did* as a part of the verb.

Ex. — “*I did say so.*” “*Really, it does move.*”

70. The Passive Form is that which is generally used to express the passive voice; and it is made by combining the verb *be*, or some variation of it, with the perfect participle.

Ex.— To be, *to be seen*; has been, *has been broken*.

“*The oak was shattered by lightning.*”

Perfect participles are such words as *planted, taught, driven*.

71. The Progressive Form is that which expresses continuance of the act or state; and it is made by combining the verb *be*, or some variation of it, with the present participle.

ACTIVE: To do, *to be doing*. “*They are dancing.*”

PASSIVE: “*The books are selling rapidly.*”

Present participles are such words as *planting, teaching, driving*.

72. The Ancient Form is an old common form that is still used in the solemn style.

It has the ending *t, st, or est*, for the second person singular; *th* or *eth*, in stead of *s* or *es*, for the third person singular; and generally uses *thou* or *ye* in stead of *you*.

Ex. — “*Thou art the man.*” — *Bible*. “*Thou knowest.*” — *Ib*.

“*For every one that asketh, receiveth.*” — *Ib*.

“*Ye are the salt of the earth.*” — *Ib*.

Most verbs or predicates can be used, besides, in the following different ways: —

1. Affirmatively. “*He is at home.*”

2. Negatively. “*He is not at home.*”

3. Interrogatively. “*Is he at home?*”

4. Interrogatively and negatively. “*Is he not at home?*”

The teacher should explain the foregoing section more fully.

PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS.

73. The Person and Number of a verb are its form to suit the person and number of its subject.

Ex. — “I *am*.” “Thou *art*.” “He *is*.” “They *are*.”

“I *write*.” “Thou *writest*.” “He *writes*.” “They *write*.”

It is customary to make *am*, *art*, *is*, and *are*, thus different because the subjects are different in person and number; and each verb thus tends to show what its subject must be.

A verb is of the *first person*, when it predicates an act or state of the speaker.

A verb is of the *second person*, when it predicates an act or state of the person spoken to.

A verb is of the *third person*, when it predicates an act or state of the person or thing spoken of.

A verb is of the *singular number*, when it predicates an act or state of but one person or thing.

A verb is of the *plural number*, when it predicates an act or state of more than one person or thing.

Verbs thus have, like nouns and pronouns, three persons and two numbers.

The teacher should explain the foregoing section more fully.

COMPARISON.

Objects not only have qualities, but they often differ in their qualities, especially in degree; and not a little of our regard for objects depends on whether they have more or less of the qualities which we like or dislike. I may prefer, for instance, one apple to another because it is *larger* or *better* than the other. Actions also differ, and not unfrequently in degree. “John may study *diligently*, but Mary may study *more diligently*.”

When we thus compare qualities, actions, and their cir-

cumstances, we usually make but three chief distinctions. We may speak of the quality itself, of a higher or a lower degree of it, or of the highest or the lowest degree; as, *wise, wiser, wisest; wise, less wise, least wise*. From this distinction in the use of qualifying words, we get that property of adjectives and adverbs which is called *comparison*.

74. Comparison is that property of adjectives and adverbs which expresses quality in different degrees.

75. There are three degrees of comparison; the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

76. Positive. An adjective or an adverb is in the *positive degree*, when it expresses simply the quality; as, *wise, wisely*.

77. Comparative. An adjective or an adverb is in the *comparative degree*, when it expresses the quality in a higher or a lower degree, or when it implies a comparison between two; as, *wiser, less wise*.

78. Superlative. An adjective or an adverb is in the *superlative degree*, when it expresses the quality in the highest or the lowest degree, or when it implies that more than two persons or things are compared; as, *wisest, least wise*.

“Jane is *tall* ;” “Alice is *taller* ;” “Louisa is the *tallest* .”
 “Jane writes *carefully* ;” “Alice writes *less carefully* ;”
 “Louisa writes *least carefully* .”

PHRASE, CLAUSE, AND SENTENCE.

79. A Phrase is two or more words rightly put together, without making a proposition. “To be alone.” “On a shady knoll.”

80. A Clause is a proposition that makes but a part of a sentence. "If you will go."

81. A Sentence is a thought expressed by a proposition, or a union of propositions, followed by a full pause.

Ex. — "The morning was pure and sunny, the fields were white with daisies, and the hawthorn was covered with its fragrant blossoms."—*Irving*.

The whole of the foregoing expression is a sentence; the parts separated by the comma are clauses; and the expression, *with its fragrant blossoms*, for instance, is a phrase.

The phrases, clauses, and sentences, and why:—

Far away. The dark storm approaches. John's slate. Many small pieces. John's slate is broken into many small pieces. The rising sun. The sun is rising. A large red apple. Give me a large red apple. To write a letter. I wish to write a letter. The rain is pouring down heavily, and the river is rapidly rising.

CLASSES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

82. NOUNS are divided into two chief classes; *proper* and *common*.

83. A Proper Noun is a name that distinguishes a particular one from the rest of a class.

Ex. — James, Mary, Boston, Maryland, September.

James is a proper noun, because it is a name that distinguishes a particular boy from others.

84. A Common Noun is a name that is common to all of the same kind or class.

Ex. — Boy, girl, city, state, month, river.

Boy is a common noun, because it is a name that is common, or can be applied. to every one of a certain class of persons.

Under common nouns are included *collective* nouns and *participial* nouns.

85. A Collective Noun is a common noun that denotes, in the singular form, more than one object of the same kind.

Ex. — Family, army, swarm, multitude, congregation, class.
The word *family* generally means a group of related persons.

86. A Participial Noun is a participle used as a noun.

Ex. — “By the *sending* of those books, you will oblige me.”
Sending tells what thing it is that would oblige me, and the word has therefore the meaning of a noun.

A noun, and why ; proper, common, collective, or participial, and why : —

Girl, Susan, book, Bible, country, Europe, day, Monday, bird, blackbird, river, Hudson, island, Cuba, tribe, chain, flock, people, playing, mountains, Andes, electioneering.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

87. PRONOUNS are divided into four classes; *personal*, *relative*, *interrogative*, and *adjective*.

88. A Personal Pronoun is one of those pronouns which distinguish the grammatical persons.

Ex. — “*I* saw *you* and *him*.” *I* denotes the speaker; *you*, the person spoken to; and *him*, the person spoken of.

89. A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that stands in close relation to an antecedent, and joins to it a descriptive clause.

Ex. — “Too low they build, *who* build beneath the stars.”

“The breeze *which* runs along the hills in music.”

Who relates to *they*; and its clause describes the persons denoted by *they*.
Which means the breeze; and its clause describes the breeze.

90. The Antecedent of a pronoun is the word, phrase, or clause, which it represents.

Ex. — “*James* lost his book.” *James* is the antecedent of *his*. “*He* who is well, undervalues health.” “*He* is the antecedent of *who*. “*I wished to call him back*, but it was impossible.” The phrase *to call him back*, is the antecedent of *it*. “*She is pretty*, and she knows it.” The clause, *she is pretty*, is the antecedent of *it*.

91. An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used to ask a question.

Ex. — “*Who* is he ?” “*Which* is he ?” “*What* is he ?”

92. An Adjective Pronoun is a common specifying adjective used as a pronoun.

Ex. — “*Some* were for *this*, and *some* for *that*.”

“The new *ones* [*houses*] are larger.”

That is, *some persons* were for *this thing*, and *some persons* were for *that thing*. Common specifying adjectives are such as *this*, *that*, *each*, etc.

1. *Distributive*: Each, either, neither.

2. *Demonstrative*: This, these, that, those, former, latter.

3. *Indefinite*: One, other, any, some, such, all, none.

4. *Reciprocal*: Each other, one another.

93. A Compound Personal Pronoun is a word consisting, in the singular number, of *my*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, or *it*, compounded with *self*; in the plural, of *our*, *your*, or *them*, compounded with *selves*.

Ex. — *My*, *myself*; *your*, *yourself*; *him*, *himself*.

Our, *ourselves*; *your*, *yourselves*; *them*, *themselves*.

94. A Compound Relative Pronoun is *who*, *which*, or *what*, with *ever* or *soever* annexed to it.

Ex. — *Who*, *whoever*, *whosoever*; *which*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*.
What, *whatever*, *whatsoever*.

KINDS OF ARTICLES.

95. There are two ARTICLES ; *The*, the *definite*, and *A* or *An*, the *indefinite*.

96. The **Definite Article** shows that some particular object or class is meant.

Ex. — *The* horse, *the* horses ; *the* Connecticut ; *the* green meadows.

97. The **Indefinite Article** shows that no particular one of a class is meant.

Ex. — *A* bird, *a* mouse, *an* apple ; *an* idle boy.

An article, and why ; whether definite or indefinite, and why : —

The roses in the garden. The rose is a beautiful flower.
A fish from the river. A daughter of a duke. The daughter of the duke. A daughter of the duke. An eagle's nest.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

98. ADJECTIVES are divided into two chief classes ; *descriptive* and *definitive*.

99. A **Descriptive Adjective** describes or qualifies.

Ex. — *A rapid* river ; *a beautiful* garden ; *a warm* day.

Rapid shows what kind of river is meant.

100. A **Definitive Adjective** merely specifies or limits.

Ex. — *This* peach ; *some* peaches ; *all* peaches ; *four* peaches.

This shows merely what peach is meant, without expressing any quality of the peach.

Four shows how many the indefinite plural, *peaches*, is intended to mean ; or it limits the meaning of the noun *peaches*.

The foregoing classes of adjectives include, as a part of their number, *participial* adjectives, *numeral* adjectives, and *pronominal* adjectives.

101. A Participial Adjective is a participle used as a descriptive adjective.

Ex. — “A *rippling* and *murmuring* rivulet.” “*Broken* windows.”

102. A Numeral Adjective is a definitive adjective that expresses number.

Ex. — *Five* men ; *thirty* horses ; the *second* man.

1. A *cardinal numeral* tells how many ; as, *one, two*.

2. An *ordinal numeral* tells which one ; as, *first, second*.

3. A *multiplicative numeral* tells how many fold ; as, *double*.

4. An *indefinite numeral* expresses number indefinitely ; as, *few*.

103. A Pronominal Adjective is one of those adjectives which resemble pronouns, and are sometimes used as pronouns.

These adjectives are divided into three classes : —

1. *Distributive*, which relate to objects taken *separately*.

Ex. — Each, every, either, neither, many a.

2. *Demonstrative*, which point out objects *definitely*.

This, these, that, those, yon, yonder, same, former, latter.

3. *Indefinite*, which relate to objects *indefinitely*.

Any, other, another, one, both, all, some, such, several, etc.

An adjective, and why ; of what kind, and why : —

Yonder tree bore five bushels of these large red apples.

This river is broad, deep, clear, and swift.

The rising sun, the setting sun, and the star-powdered galaxy.

CLASSES OF VERBS.

REGULAR. AND IRREGULAR.

104. VERBS are divided, according to their form, into *regular* and *irregular*.

105. A Regular Verb is a verb that takes the end-

ing *ed*, to form its past tense and its perfect participle.

Ex. — Present, *plant* ; past, *planted* ; perfect participle, *planted*.
Play, *play ed*, *play ed* ; try, *tri ed*, *tri ed* ; rob, *rob bed*, *rob bed*.

While studying this section, review the Rules for Spelling, pp. 155 and 156.

106. An Irregular Verb is a verb that does not take the ending *ed*, to form its past tense and its perfect participle.

Ex. — Sweep, *swept*, *swept* ; see, *saw*, *seen* ; cut, *cut*, *cut*.

107. The Principal Parts of a verb are the *present tense*, the *past tense*, the *present participle*, and the *perfect participle*.

These are called the **PRINCIPAL PARTS**, because by means of them and the auxiliary verbs all the other parts of the verb can be formed.

108. The Present Tense is the simplest form of the verb ; as, *go*.

109. The Past Tense is the simplest form that expresses a past fact ; as, *went*.

110. The Present Participle is that form which ends always with *ing* ; as, *going*. It is therefore so well known that it hardly needs mentioning.

111. The Perfect Participle is that form which makes sense with the word *having* before it ; as, *gone*, (*having gone*).

The present tense and the past tense which we have just mentioned, are the present indicative or infinitive and the past indicative. For the sake of brevity, they are generally called simply the *present* and the *past* ; and the *past* is sometimes called the *prétérit*

FINITE AND NOT FINITE.

112. VERBS are divided, according to their relation to subjects, into *finite* and *not finite*.

113. A Finite Verb is a verb that predicates the act or state of its subject.

Ex. — "The plant grows." "John *has arrived*." "I *am* alone."

114. A verb that is *not finite*, does not predicate the act or state of its subject.

"The plant *growing*." "John *having come*." "For me *to be* alone."

Observe the difference between these phrases and the preceding sentences, ¶ 113.

115. Verbs that are not finite, may be divided into two classes; *Infinitives* and *Participles*.

116. An Infinitive is a form of the verb that generally begins with *to*, and that expresses the act or state without predicating it.

Ex. — To lead, to have led, to be led, to have been led.

Observe that these forms simply name the act, without asserting it of a subject.

117. A Participle is a form of the verb that expresses the act or state without predicating it, and generally resembles an adjective.

Ex. — "A tree, *bending* with fruit, fell to the ground."

Observe that *fell*, and not *bending*, is predicated of *tree*; also that the phrase, *bending with fruit*, is, like an adjective, descriptive of the tree.

118. There are two infinitives; the *present* and the *perfect*.

119. There are two participles; the *present* and the *perfect*.

120. The Present Infinitive represents the act or state as present or future at the time referred to.

Ex. — "She *seems* | *to study*."

"Man never is, but always *to be*, blest."

121. The Present Participle represents the act or state as present and continuing at the time referred to.

Ex. — “ We saw the moon *rising*.”

“ Who goes *borrowing*, goes *sorrowing*.”

122. The Perfect Infinitive or Participle represents the act or state as past or ended at the time referred to.

Ex. — “ The river appears *to have risen*.”

“ A fox, *caught* in a trap.”

123. The present infinitive begins with *to* ; the perfect, with *to have* ; as, *to write*, *to have written*.

124. To, the sign of the infinitive, is omitted, —

1. When the infinitive is combined with an auxiliary verb.

Ex. — “ I can [*to*] *study* ; ” i. e., I am able *to study*.

Auxiliary verbs are such as *may*, *might*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, *will*, etc.

2. After the active verbs *bid*, *make*, *need*, *hear*, | *let*, *see*, *feel*, and *dare*.

Ex. — “ I will make it [*to*] *rise*.” “ Let us [*to*] *go*.”

125. The simple present participle ends with *ing* ; the perfect, with *ed*, or it is an irregular form.

Ex. — Plant, *planting*, *planted* ; write, *writing*, *written*.

126. The infinitives and participles of transitive verbs have two sets of forms ; the one set is active, and the other passive.

ACTIVE : To write, to have written ; writing, (written,) having written.

PASSIVE : To be written, to have been written ; being written, written, having been written.

127. A Compound Participle is one that consists of *being*, *having*, or *having been*, combined with some other participle.

Being, *having*, and *having been*, thus become auxiliary participles to other participles.

128. Being is used chiefly to express the present passive participle of transitive verbs.

“The soldier, *being wounded*, was carried to the hospital.”

129. Having is used chiefly to express the perfect active participle of transitive verbs, or to express the participle in time that corresponds to some perfect tense.

Ex. — Loved, *having loved*. “*Having said* this, he withdrew” = When he *had said* this, he withdrew. “*Having learned* the lesson, you may play” = Since or when you *have learned* the lesson, you may play.

130. Having been is used chiefly to express the perfect participle corresponding to the compound present passive participle.

“The soldier, *having been wounded*, was known by the scar.”

131. Compound participles are either *present* or *perfect*.

Those which begin with *being*, are present; those which begin with *having*, are perfect.

132. A participle or an infinitive sometimes becomes so far a noun that it assumes case.

Ex. — “*To live without being annoyed* is pleasant.”

“*Life without annoyance* is pleasant.”

What is pleasant? without what.

Simple participles sometimes become adjectives.

Ex. — “*Twinkling stars*.” “*Cloven feet*.” — See p. 29.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

133. VERBS are divided, according to their relation to objects, into *transitive* and *intransitive*.

134. A **Transitive Verb** is a verb that has an object, or requires one to complete the sense.

Ex. — “The lightning *struck* the oak.” (Struck *what*?)

“I *knew* him well, and every truant *knew*” [*him*].

Transitive verbs are used in two forms. — See Voice, p. 16.

135. An **Intransitive Verb** is a verb that does not have or require an object.

Ex. — “Birds *fly*.” “Roses *bloom*.”

The birds do not fly any thing.

136. An intransitive verb that does not imply action or exertion, is sometimes called a *neuter verb*.

Ex. — “The ocean *is* deep.” “The book *lies* on the table.”

A verb, and why; whether transitive or intransitive, and why:—

Squirrels eat nuts. Peter came. The deer runs rapidly. Amelia told an interesting story. A tree grew by the fountain. The music was delightful. The clouds brought rain. A little girl led the blind man. Do not climb, lest you fall. Good people hate sin. They live in a neat cottage.

A *finite verb* has a nominative.

A *verb not finite* does not have a nominative.

A *transitive verb* has an object.

An *intransitive verb* does not have an object.

PRINCIPAL AND AUXILIARY.

137. VERBS are divided, in regard to the chief mode of combining them, into *principal* and *auxiliary*.

138. A Principal Verb is a verb that expresses by itself the act or state, or the chief part of it.

"She *sings*." "She can *sing*." "She may have *sung*."

Sing is a principal verb; *can*, and *may have*, are auxiliary verbs.

139. An Auxiliary Verb helps other verbs to express their grammatical properties.

Hence there are, —

Auxiliary verbs that express *voice*; as, *was* captured.

Auxiliary verbs that express *mood*; as, *may* capture.

Auxiliary verbs that express *tense*; as, *had* captured.

Auxiliary verbs that express *emphasis*; as, *did* capture.

All auxiliary verbs express *person* and *number*.

For an explanation of auxiliary verbs, see p. 70.

The remaining parts of speech need not be subdivided into classes here.

FUNDAMENTAL IDEAS, AND GRAMMATICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES.

OBJECTS.

1. Horse, dog, man, boys, lady, monkey, parasol.

The *horse* runs. The *dog* barks. The *man* works. *Boys* study and play. The *lady* lost *her* | *parasol*. The *monkey* had taken the *lady's* | *parasol*. I bought a *barrel* of *flour*. *Life* has *its* | *pleasures* and *its* | *troubles*.

2. For me to go. To die for one's country.

For me to go is impossible. (What is impossible?) He wishes to *sell the farm*. It is glorious to *die for one's country*.

3. That he will ever return. That you are not very attentive.

That he will ever return, is doubtful. (What is doubtful?) He says that *you are not very attentive to your business*. Is it not a pity, *that she knows so little*?

From the examples under this head, we can infer that a fundamental idea may show itself in a *word*, a *phrase*, or a

clause. And from some of the examples under the following heads, it will be evident that it sometimes shows itself in the *changes* which it causes in the *forms of words*.

The sentences to the end of Part First show the general construction of the English language. A teacher of tact can make these sentences available in many different ways. We have room to show only a few of the ways in which they may be used.

The following are specimens of the manner in which the pupil may be conducted through these sentences : —

Horse is a noun, because it is the name of an animal. *Man* is a noun, because it is the name of a person. *Parasol* is a noun, because it is the name of a thing. *For me to go* is a phrase used as a noun, because it tells what thing it is that is impossible. *That he will ever return*, is a clause used as a noun, because it tells what thing it is that is doubtful.

ACTIONS.

Roll, read, climb, fly, swim, dance, sing.

The ball *rolls*. The boy *reads*. Squirrels *climb* trees. Pigeons *fly* rapidly. Ducks *swim*. The girls *sing* and *dance*. The girls *sing*, *walk*, and *dance*. The lightnings *dart* from cloud to cloud. The dew *bends* and *refreshes* the flowers.

Changes in Form. — The bell *tolls*. The bell *is tolling*. The bell *has tolled*. The bell *tolled*. The bell *had tolled*. The bell *will toll*. The bell *will have tolled*. The bell *may toll*. The bell *may have tolled*. The bell *should have tolled*. *Toll*, sweet bell.

I strike. *I am striking*. *I am struck*. *I was struck*. *I was striking*. *I struck*. *I have been striking*. *I have been struck*. *I shall strike*. *I shall be struck*. *I shall have been striking*. *I could strike*. *I could have been struck*. Strike for the green graves of your sires.

Rolls is a verb, because it tells what the ball does. *Am struck* is a verb, because it tells what is done to me.

QUALITIES, OR ATTRIBUTES.

1. Words. — A *green* meadow. The meadow is *green*. A *fragrant* pink. The pink is *fragrant*. *Warm* weather. The weather is *warm*. *Blue* hills. The hills are *blue*. *Long* lessons. The lessons were *long*. An *idle* boy. The boy is *idle*. A *bleak* and *frosty* morning. The morning is *bleak* and *frosty*. She has *black* eyes, *rosy* cheeks, and *pearly* teeth. The *windy* summit, *wild* and *high*, rises against the *distant* sky. *Rosy* child, with forehead *fair*, coral lip, and *shining* hair.

Changes in Form. — A *cold* day; a *colder* day; the *coldest* day. The day was *cold*. The day was *colder*. The day was the *coldest*. *Large* fish live in *deep* water. *Larger* fish live in *deeper* water. The *largest* fish live in the *deepest* water. This tree has *many* apples. That tree has *more* apples. Yonder tree has *most* apples.

2. Phrases. — The flowers *of spring* and the stars *of heaven*. (What flowers?) Beauty is *like the flowers of spring*, but virtue is *like the stars of heaven*. The song *of the robin* was clear and tender. A bough *with red berries* floated on the water. The time *of danger* is the time *for courage*. It is the knell *of the departed year*. She has a bouquet *of rare and beautiful flowers*. The shady lawn *between the house and the river* is the most delightful part *of the farm*.

3. Clauses. — The lady *who sings so well*, is now in the house. (What lady?) He *who is fond of solitude*, is generally fond of studying. Those people *who flatter you*, are not your friends. The rain *which we have had this week*, has been very refreshing. We gathered every year large quantities of nuts, *which grew in great abundance in the forest* | *that surrounded our little farm*. I call that mind free, | *which escapes the bondage of matter*, | *which calls no man master*, | and *which sets no bounds to its love*.

Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave *where our hero was buried.*

Green is an adjective, because it describes the meadow. *Colder* is an adjective, because it describes the day ; and in the comparative degree, because it implies a comparison between two, or because it describes a certain day as having a higher degree of the quality. *Of spring* is an adjective phrase, because it describes the flowers, or shows what flowers are meant. *Who sings so well*, is an adjective clause, because it describes the lady, or shows what lady is meant.

SEX.

He is a boy. *She* is a girl. *It* is a tree. I met *him*. You met *her*. We met *them*. *He* is my father. *She* is my mother. My *uncle* came on *his* pony. My *aunt* came in *her* carriage. His *brother* is a duke. His *sister* is a duchess. *He* married a Jewess. *She* married a Jew. *He* was administrator. *She* was administratrix. *He* is an actor. *She* is an actress. If *Joseph* was a hero, *Josephine* was a heroine. *Beaus* wait upon *belles*. The prince and the princess are now king and queen. *Miss Julia Brooks* is the niece, not the nephew, of *Mr. Julius Brooks*. *Ganders* are white, and *geese* are gray. *Ganders* and *geese* are often called *geese*; *drakes* and *ducks*, *ducks*; *horses* and *mares*, *horses*; and *heirs* and *heiresses*, *heirs*. Two sons were all the male descendants, and three daughters all the female descendants, of the family. The landlady was very polite to the gentlemen and the ladies ; but I assure you the landlord made them all pay for their titles the next morning.

He is a boy, is of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male. Or the teacher may read the sentence, and then make inquiry in regard to the separate words. Thus : "*He is a boy* — what part of speech is *he* ? and of what gender is it ?" — PUPIL. "*He is a pronoun*, because it is a word used in stead of some one's name ; and it is of the masculine gender, because it denotes a male.

NUMBER.

One *is*. Two or more *are*. One *was*. Two or more *were*. One *has been*. Two or more *have been*. One *reads*. Two or more *read*. The man *works*. The men *work*. My *tooth* is sound. My *teeth* are sound. *That* goose is wild. *Those* geese are wild. The boy has lost *his* knife. The boys have lost *their* knives. The girl has recited her lesson. The girls have recited their lessons. The fox is a cunning animal. Foxes are cunning animals. The lady is modest. Ladies are modest. My foot is sore. My feet are sore. Our feet are sore. The mouse ran into its hole. The mice ran into their holes. The child sleeps. The children sleep. He bought an ox. They bought a yoke of oxen. I am busy. We are busy. Thou art. Ye are. I know myself. We know ourselves. He knows himself. They know themselves. He, she, or it, is good. They are good. The deer is a pretty creature. Deer are pretty creatures. The sheep is timid. Sheep are timid. The swine is greedy. Swine are greedy. I bought one dozen. He bought five dozen. This species of flowers is beautiful. These species of flowers are beautiful. The committee was large. The committee were not unanimous. The whole flock of partridges was caught. A multitude of people were assembled. The news is good. By this means he lost all. By these means he lost all. His lungs were diseased. Riches are seldom well spent. The embers were hot. The dregs were at the bottom. The tongs have been more useful than the snuffers. An *ash* is a tree; but *ashes* are the remains of burned wood or coal. *Geniuses* are men of genius, but *genii* are spirits. *Dice* are used for gaming, and *dies* are used for stamping. A *memorandum* denotes one thing, but *memorandä* denote more. A *radius* is a single line, but *radii* are more. *Silk* is a kind of stuff,

but *silks* are different kinds of silk. *Tea* is a kind of drink, but *teas* are different kinds of tea. By *spices* we usually mean different kinds of *spice*. The *Misses Bates* are sisters to Dr. Bates; and the *Messrs. Barnes* are brothers to Miss Barnes. Ten *spoonfuls* made a cupful; and twenty *cupfuls* made two *pitchers* nearly full. My brothers-in-law live at my father-in-law's residence.

Every boy has brought his books. All the boys have brought their books. Either place is suitable. Each place is suitable. Both places are suitable. Neither place is suitable.

One is, is of the singular number, because it refers to but one object. Or thus: *One* is a pronoun, because it is a word used in stead of a noun; and it is singular, because it denotes but one object. *Is* is a verb of the singular number, because it predicates something of but one.

PERSON.

This subject belongs more properly to the next head, Relation; but it is probably best to consider it in connection with Number.

I am. Thou art. He is. We are. You are. They are. I was. Thou wast. He was. We were. You were. They were. I have been. You have been. He has been. They have been. I write. He writes. *I know my lesson. He knows his lesson. You know your lesson. We know our lessons. They know their lessons. I take care of myself. You take care of yourself. We take care of ourselves. You take care of yourselves. He takes care of himself. They take care of themselves.* This is *mine*; that is *yours*; and the other is *his* or *hers*. The responsibility must fall upon *him*, upon *you*, or upon *me*. *We have deceived ourselves; you have deceived yourselves; and they have deceived themselves.*

I am, is of the first person, because it refers to the speaker. Or thus: *I* is a pronoun of the first person, because it denotes the speaker; and *am* is a verb of the first person, because it predicates something of the speaker.

RELATION.

Things have many relations to one another, and there are as many corresponding relations in the use of words; but we shall here notice only the chief of those relations which afford us the cases of nouns and pronouns.

Nominative Case.—The *tree* fell. (What fell?) The *flower* is unfolding. The *partridges* flew away. The *ship* moves. The *bell* rings. The *storm* roars. *She* laughed. (Who laughed?) *He* is reading. *I* shall return soon. The *boys* skate. The *trees* wave. The *fire* crackles and flames.

The *ocean* is blue. (What is blue?) This *map* is beautiful. The *well* was deep. Her *dress* was white and neat. The *lark* is a singing-bird. A *thief* is also a liar. Our *corn* is gathered. The *bread* is baked. *Brass* is made of zinc and copper.

Objective Case.—The fisherman catches *fish*. (Catches what?) The boy broke the *looking-glass*. My mother spins *flax*. The carpenter mended the *door*. The caterpillars devoured the *buds*. The weaver weaves *yarn* into cloth. The barber shaved *me*. I invited *him*. They hid *themselves*. The sun is warming the *garden*. Snow has covered the *hills*. She sang us a *song*.

I was going down the *street*. (Down what?) The Mississippi river rises in *Minnesota*. The book lay on the *table*. The child fell into the *well*. The bridge extends over the *river*. There is a plank-road from the *church* to the *college*. Several railroads run through *Pennsylvania*. The garden lies behind the *house*. The swallows flutter about the *eaves*.

Possessive Case.—Here is the *boy's* book. Here are the *boys'* books. This is the *man's* hat. These are the *men's* hats. I have cleaned *my* desk. We have cleaned

our desks. You have broken *your* slate. He has bruised *his* thumb. She has torn *her* book. They had lost *their* way. This is *mine* ; that is *yours* ; and the other is *hers*. *Yours* are better than *ours*. My *brother's* estate belongs to one person only. My *brothers'* estate belongs to two or more persons. My *friend's* request comes from one person only. My *friends'* request comes from two or more persons. It is *our* duty, not *theirs*, to supply the *people's* wants. For *goodness'* sake, help me out of my troubles. He resides near *St. James's* Place.

Tree is a noun in the nominative case, because it is the subject of *fell*, or because it tells what fell. *Fish* is a noun in the objective case, because it is the object of *catches*, or because it tells what the fisherman catches. *Street* is a noun in the objective case, because it is the object of the preposition *down*, or because it completes the relation of the preposition *down* by telling down what. *Boy's* is a noun in the possessive case, because it denotes possession.

MOOD OR MANNER.

We shall notice manner here, only so far as it relates to the different modes of expressing the verb in regard to its subject.

INDICATIVE MOOD.—John is at home. The glass was broken. The servant has made a fire. I had bought a farm. You shall see him to-morrow. The miller will have ground the corn before we return.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.—If John were at home. If the glass be broken, you may throw it away. If the servant had made a fire, we should have been comfortable. If I bought the farm, I should have to sell it again. If you see him to-morrow, tell him to visit me. Had the miller ground the corn, we should have returned sooner.

POTENTIAL MOOD.—John may be at home. The glass may have been broken. The servant could have made a fire. I would buy the farm, if he would sell it. You must see him to-morrow. The miller should have ground the corn.

IMPERATIVE MOOD. — John, be at home. Peter, make a fire. Miller, grind the corn. Buy the farm. See him to-morrow, if you can. Behave yourself well. Be always kind and obliging. Do not grieve over unavoidable calamities.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES. — A servant came to make a fire. I ought to have bought the farm. You are too anxious to see it. The miller was requested to grind the corn. It seems to have rained last night. The lady, dressed in homespun, was the neatest. Two hundred canons, flashing and thundering continually, seemed to shake the very earth to its centre. Now the bright morning-star comes dancing from the east. The glass having been broken, we threw it away.

Akin to the forms of the verb known as MOODS, are the forms of the verb called VOICES.

John hit James. James was hit by John. He told the story. The story was told by him. The puppy tore the book. The book was torn by the puppy. The water turns the wheel. The wheel is turned by the water. The winds fan the flowers and ruffle the waters. The flowers are fanned and the waters are ruffled by the winds.

Akin to the MOODS are also the INTERROGATIVE and the NEGATIVE FORM of the verb.

He has read the book. He has not read the book. Has he read the book? Has he not read the book? You have been at home. You have not been at home. Have you been at home? Have you not been at home? Life is a burden. Life is not a burden. Is life a burden? Is not life a burden?

Akin to the MOODS are also the FORMS of the tenses.

He teaches. He teacheth. He is teaching. He does teach. He doth teach. You know him. Thou knowest

him. You are a sinful people. Ye are a sinful people. I write. I am writing. I do write. I wrote. I was writing. I did write. Visit me. Do visit me. Are you the traitor? Art thou the traitor?

John is at home, is a sentence in the indicative mood, because it expresses an actual occurrence or fact; or, *is* is a verb in the indicative mood, because it expresses an actual occurrence or fact. "*If John were at home*," is a sentence in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a mere supposition; or, *were* is a verb in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a mere supposition.

Hit is a verb in the active voice, because it represents the subject as acting. *Was hit* is a verb in the passive voice, because it represents the subject as acted upon.

He has read the book, is an affirmative sentence. *He has not read the book*, is a negative sentence. *Has he read the book?* is an interrogative sentence. *Has he not read the book?* is an interrogative and negative sentence.

Teaches is a verb in the common form, because it is the verb expressed in the most simple and ordinary manner.

T I M E.

A chief idea sometimes displays itself in the changes which it causes in a certain class of words. When this occurs, the idea becomes a grammatical property. Hence *time* affords us the *tenses*.

Changes in Form. — PRESENT TENSE. — The rose blooms. The boy studies. The work is done. The leaves are falling. The cars do not move. The journey is expensive.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose has bloomed. The boy has studied. The work has been done. The leaves have been falling. The journey has been expensive.

PAST TENSE. — The rose bloomed. The boy studied. The work was done. The leaves were falling. The cars did not move. The journey was expensive.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose had bloomed. The boy had studied. The work had been done. The leaves had been falling. The journey had been expensive.

FUTURE TENSE. — The rose will bloom. The boy will study. The work will be done. The leaves will be falling. The journey will be expensive.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE. — The rose will have bloomed. The boy will have studied. The work will have been done. The train will have left. The journey will have been expensive.

Time may show itself more definitely in *words, phrases, or clauses*, that are used to express it.

Words. — The paper comes *weekly*. Go *instantly*. It rains *daily*. Your class is *now* reciting. He will return *late*. I shall see you *to-morrow*. He was here *yesterday*. Jonquils bloom *early*. The oak lives *long*. We shall *soon* reach the shore. He visits us *frequently*. She is *always* cheerful.

Phrases. — He remained *till morning*. A great storm arose *after sunset*. They were treated well *that night*, and *the next day* they departed. *At the break of day*, our horses were saddled. He rode a hundred miles *in twenty-five hours*. *For many a returning autumn*, this Indian visited the graves of his fathers. *Within twenty years from the foundation of this village*, deer had become scarce.

Clauses. — He knocked at the door, *before any one was awake*. We shall have peace, *after we have subdued the enemy*. Great was the alarm in the colony, *while these children were lost*. We traveled through dim paths, *until the day drew to its close*. She smiled *when I told her how I had fallen into the water*.

Frequently, the changed form, the word, the phrase, and the clause, are all found in the same sentence; as, "He came | *early* | *in the morning*, | *while we were at breakfast*."

Blooms is a verb in the present tense, because it denotes a present act. *Weekly* is a word that shows when the paper comes. *Till morning* is a phrase that shows how long he remained. *Before any one is awake*, is a clause that shows when he knocked.

PLACE.

Words. — The man is *here*. My horse stands *yonder*. I went *home*. I have seen him *somewhere*. I shall go *abroad*. The wall fell *inwards*. The birds flew *away*. The dog came *up*. Beautiful mansions gleamed *far* and *near*.

Phrases. — Melons grow *on vines*. Tea is brought *from China*. The child slept *in its mother's lap*. I was *at the same school*. You reside *in a pleasant part of the city*. Let us take a ramble *in the woods*. The cascade tumbled *from the rocks*. The army marched *round the hill*. We went *through swamps, thickets, and endless mud*. The Indians bore them *far beyond the limits of the settlement*. She sat *below us*, | *at the same table*.

Clauses. — We caught the minnows *where the water ripples over the rocks*. He remains *wherever he finds good company*. Thou hearest the sound of the wind ; but thou canst not tell *whence it cometh*, and *whither it goeth*.

Frequently, two or more chief ideas are combined in the same sentence. A recent French novel begins thus : "*In the gloomy month of November*, | *when the English drown and hang themselves*, a disconsolate lover walked forth | *into the fields*, and seated himself *under a juniper-tree*." (Time and place.)

Here is a word that shows in what place the man is. *On vines* is a phrase that shows in what place melons grow. *From China* is a phrase that shows from what place tea is brought. *Where the water ripples over the rocks*, is a clause that shows in what place the minnows were caught.

DEGREE.

The river is *deep*. The lake is *deeper*. The ocean is the *deepest* body of water in the world. This one is *good*; that one is *better*; but the other is the *best*. Want is *bad*; but debt may be *worse*. A *good* name is *better* than riches. The *worst* gambler won the money. Who has *more* enemies and *fewer* friends, *more* trouble and *less* pleasure, than the miser? The pink is *more beautiful* than the marigold, and one of the *most fragrant* of flowers. He sat *next* to me, though I was *nearer* to the speaker. I said an *elder* soldier, not a *braver*. The *upper* room is already occupied. The *hindmost* man was left in the *utmost* distress. Most men judge others *more severely* than themselves. The weather is somewhat colder. The weather is so cold that I need my overcoat. There was so much noise that we could hear but very little of what was said.

Deep is an adjective in the positive degree, because it expresses simply a quality of the river. *Deeper* is an adjective in the comparative degree, because it shows that the lake has the quality in a higher degree.

LOGICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SENTENCES.

Persons are often perplexed in determining how they shall arrange the words by means of which they express their thoughts. We generally express our thoughts as we naturally think them. That of which we think or speak, is naturally first thought of; and therefore it is generally first put down. To this we add, either before or after, all the descriptive words, phrases, and clauses, that belong to it; as, "The boy," "The little boy," "The little boy from the country," "The little boy from the country, who was here yesterday." Having thus got the subject, we

next put down, in like manner, what is said of it ; as, “ wept,” “ wept bitterly,” “ wept bitterly for a long time,” “ wept bitterly for a long time because he could not find his father.” “ The little boy from the country, who was here yesterday, wept bitterly for a long time because he could not find his father.” From this sentence it is obvious that we naturally first put down the subject, then the predicate, adding to each, or rather, including with each, the various qualities or secondary ideas which enter into the thought. We do not, however, always arrange our words in this way ; but we sometimes put down first that which is first or most thought of, or makes the greatest impression upon us, even if it is not the object itself of which we are speaking. “ The whole shelf of china fell down with such clattering and breaking as startled us all.” In an occurrence of this kind, the fall is naturally the most striking part ; and therefore we would probably say, “ Down fell the whole shelf of china, with such clattering and breaking as startled us all.”

We have many different thoughts. Our thoughts are made thus different because they are made up of many different ideas. Hence we get many different sentences ; but nearly all of these sentences come more or less within the following description, or their parts answer to some of the following questions : —

Which one ?	} Subject.	Is what ?	} When ? Where ?
How many ?		Does what ?	
Of what kind ?		Has what done to it ?	
		Who ? What ?	{ How ? Why ?
			{ As to what ?

Let us now develop sentences accordingly.

SUBJECT.

Simplest Form. Who ? What ?

Columbus discovered America. *Galileo* invented the telescope. *Capt. John Smith* colonized Virginia. *The*

Romans destroyed Jerusalem. *Washington* is called the father of our country. *The Mayor* did not sign the bill.

Iron is the most useful metal. *Wealth* is not the greatest blessing. *A pen* may be more dangerous than a sword. *Poplars* grow rapidly. *Beauty* is a perishing flower

Which one?

This TREE is an oak. *That TREE* is an elm. *Yonder FARM* belongs to me. *The first MAN* was shot. *The last SQUADRON* had arrived. *The youngest CHILD* is a daughter. *The eldest SON* is in the army. *Albert's BOOKS* are new. *My neighbor's HORSES* ran away. *Your CAP* fits me. *The RIVER Hudson* is in New York. *The POET Cowper* lived at Olney, in England. *The STEAMSHIP Arctic* was wrecked at sea. *DAVID, the son of Jesse*, became king of Israel. *The TREE dead at the top* was first cut down. *The APPLE highest on the tree* is not always the best. *The ELM before the house* must be a thousand years old. *The PALING around the garden* cost a hundred dollars. *The FIELD below the hill* is sometimes overflowed. *The HILLS beyond the river* are blue and beautiful. *The HOUSE erected by the church* is a parsonage. *The TREES planted along the river* grow rapidly. *The LINES written by Coleridge* are the most beautiful in the collection. *The MAN who sits next to the speaker*, is the president. *The SUM which was collected last Sunday*, has already been expended. *The EVIL about which you have said so much*, has been often noticed.

How many?

Seven MEN were wounded. *A thousand SOLDIERS* make a regiment. *Twenty-five CARRIAGES* followed the hearse. *Only one PERSON* was seen in the canoe.

Of what kind?

A terrible THUNDER-STORM passed over the city. *A beautiful LAKE* lay in front of the house. *Silvery CLOUDS*

fringed the horizon. *Iron* RAILING is very durable. *Small and beautiful* FLOWERS hung from the rocks. *A Colt's* REVOLVER was in his belt. *A hunter's* RIFLE was the only gun we had. *ISABELLA, a pious and noble queen*, assisted Columbus. *COLLINS, a poet of the most delicate sensibilities*, died in the prime of life. *A* SHIP of the largest size was sunk by this rifled cannon. *A* MAN of good habits generally enjoys good health. *The* FEATHERS of ducks and geese are used for beds. *A* PERSON governed by his inclinations only, is apt to be fickle. *A* LADY admired and praised for her beauty is apt to become vain. PLANTS reared in cellars are seldom strong. LAWS to prevent such outrages should be enacted. *A* DINNER to suit the occasion was prepared. *The* MAN who does not keep his word, should not be trusted. *The* TREES which are of the smallest size, generally grow on high places. There arose, about this time, from the lower ranks of the people, a MAN named Cromwell, of incredible depth of understanding, strict integrity, and unwavering resolution, | who with one hand held successfully the reins of civil authority, and with the other hurled victoriously the thunderbolts of war.

Columbus discovered America, is a sentence, because it is a thought expressed by a proposition and followed by a full pause. *Columbus* is the subject, because it denotes the person of whom something is said; and *discovered America* is the predicate, because it denotes what is said of Columbus. *This tree* is the subject; *tree* is the principal word, and *this* shows which tree is meant. *Seven men* is the subject; *men* is the principal word, and *seven* shows how many. *A terrible thunder-storm* is the subject; *thunder-storm* is the principal word, and *terrible* shows of what kind.

PREDICATE.

Is what?

Life is short. Time is precious. War is ruinous. Cotton is dear. Farmers are generally industrious. Tomatoes

are wholesome. Tomatoes are red or yellow. The pineapple is sweet and juicy. The cat is a useful animal. John is an idle boy. The turkey is a native of America. The eagle is a bird of great power. The home of the brave is the home of the free. Gratitude is the memory of the heart. Hope is the blossom of happiness.

Does what?

Lambs play. Eagles soar. Cars run. Bears growl and bite. My head aches. James IS GATHERING hazel-nuts. Mary IS PARING apples. These islands PRODUCE spices. Cæsar FOUGHT many battles. You HAVE MADE an enemy of him. George GAVE me a piece of his apple. He TOLD the story to his brother, and then they both LAUGHED.

Has what done to it?

The door was shut. The stranger WAS BITTEN by the dog. The book WAS SENT by mail. The field had been reaped. The meat WILL BE COOKED in a few hours. The treasures of the pirates WERE BURIED on an island. The cargo was landed. The bells were rung. The old house WAS TORN down by the workmen. Our apples MUST BE GATHERED next week. The book is well PRINTED and BOUND. Most people ARE easily DECEIVED by fair appearances.

Is short is a predicate, because it tells what life is, or it denotes what is said of life. *Play* is a predicate, because it tells what lambs do, or denotes what is said of lambs. *Was shut* is a predicate, because it tells what is done to the door, or denotes what is said of the door.

When? How long? How often?

Words. — Come soon. I called afterwards. I have never seen him. He has always been in debt. Let us start early.

Phrases. — He visits us every day. I go to school in the morning. The robber was hanged before noon, | about ten o'clock.

Clauses. — Remain *till I return*. We often deceive ourselves *while we try to deceive others*. *When wolf eats wolf*, there is nothing else in the woods to eat. We used to go to bed at nine o'clock, *when we lived in the country*. My heart dilated with honest pride, *as I recalled to mind the stern yet amiable characters of our Revolutionary fathers*.

Soon is a word that shows when you are to come. *Every day* is a phrase that tells how often he visits us. *Till I return*, is a clause that tells how long you are to remain.

Where?

Words. — Stop *here*. I called *there*. *Yonder* comes your father. I found no amusement *anywhere*. He lives *above*.

Phrases. — He visited us *at home*. We went *into the country*. There is a railroad *across the Isthmus of Darien*. Have you made a fire *in my room*? *On the banks of the Ganges* we can see the ebony in bloom.

Clauses. — The enemy put their cannons *where no enemy could approach them*. *Where honesty takes root*, the blessing of God makes it a tree. Wherever there is honey, *there you will also find bees*. *As far as we went*, there was nothing but desolation.

Here is an adverb that tells where you are to stop. *At home* is a phrase that tells where he visited us. *Where no enemy could approach them*, is a clause that tells where the enemy put their cannons.

How?

Words. — Move *briskly*. I knocked *gently*. The boatmen sang *merrily*. Did your goods sell *well*? The procession moved *slowly* and *solemnly*.

Phrases. — It rained *in torrents*. She dresses *after the Spanish fashion*. We keep *without remorse* that which we acquire *without crime*. Half the people in the world live *at the expense of the other half*. Here comes the body of *Cæsar*, *mourned by Mark Antony*. She perished *like a ten-*

der flower. And probably, "The Assyrian came down *like the wolf on the fold.*"

Clauses. — She behaved *as every modest young lady should behave.* The honest man speaks *as he thinks*; the flatterer, *as others like to hear.* *As you work*, so shall you thrive. The storm howled and tore *as if it would uproot the forest.*

Briskly is a word that shows how you are to move. *In torrents* is a phrase that shows how it rained. *As every modest young lady should behave*, is a clause that shows how she behaved.

Why?

Words. — *Therefore* go. *Why* did you knock? *Wherefore* did you not write? *Hence* we parted.

Phrases. — She died *of grief.* The soldiers perished *from hunger and thirst.* The accident happened *through carelessness.* He went *for pleasure.* I want money *to buy books.* He called *to see you.*

Clauses. — He feels very much dejected, *for he can not find employment.* I sent for the doctor, *because the child was very sick.* *Since you will have it so*, I will go with you. Live virtuously, *that you may be happy.*

Therefore is a word that implies why you are to go. *Why* is a word that asks for the reason of your knocking. *Of grief* is a phrase that tells why she died. *For he can not find employment*, is a clause that tells why he feels dejected.

As to what?

Words. — She is ashamed *to dance.* He is afraid *to go.*

Phrases. — She has not the courage *to speak to him.* He is poor *in money*, but rich *in knowledge.* I am fond *of strawberries and raspberries.* I paid the bookseller *for the books.* He is indolent about *every thing.* I am able *to pay him.*

Clauses. — I consent *that you go and see him.* I feared *lest I should lose it.* I am convinced *that honesty is the best policy.* I am glad *that we have peace again.*

To dance is a word that tells in regard to what she is ashamed. *To speak to him* is a phrase that tells as to what she has not courage. *That you go and see him*, is a clause that tells as to what I consent.

Propositions, or Simple Sentences, combined.

Our thoughts consist of propositions, either single or combined. Propositions are combined in many different senses. The following are the principal modes of combining them.

Addition.

The coffee was good, *and* the rolls were excellent. I was alone, *and* the night was dark and stormy. That boy is very studious, *and* he is loved by all his classmates. The rivulet rested clear as crystal in the rocky urn, *and* large blue violets hung over the surrounding moss.

The coffee was good, and the rolls were excellent, is a sentence that consists of two clauses connected by *and*, which implies addition. In a similar way dispose of all the remaining sentences.

Contrariety.

He is a small man, *but* he is very strong. We started early, *but* we came an hour too late. He is stout and healthy in appearance, *yet* he has always been sickly. We lost the battle, *notwithstanding* we did our utmost to win it. *Although* he is accused, *yet* he is innocent.

Alternation, or Choice.

I will *either* send you my horse, *or* you may hire one at my expense. *Neither* spend your money before you have it, *nor* buy what you do not need. *Either* he will hate the one, and love the other; *or* else he will hold to the one, and despise the other.

Cause.

This field will produce well, *because* the soil is fertile. I refused his present, *for* I knew he offered it from selfish motives. He is angry; *therefore* let him alone. *As* it is impossible to go, let us remain contentedly at home. *Since*

we can not enjoy this world long, is it not strange that most people are so very avaricious ?

Sometimes a sentence consists of a combination of differently connected propositions ; as, "Great men undertake great th'ngs, *because* they are themselves great ; *but* fools undertake them, *because* they think them easy." (Cause and contrariety.)

Condition.

If I were in your place, I would join the army. Would you go, *if* you should be invited ? *If* there were no evil listeners, there would be no evil talkers. *So* it answers the purpose, it will matter little how indifferent it is.

No Connective expressed.

When no connective is expressed, the connecting sense generally is that of *and*, *for*, *but*, *if*, or *that is*.

The woods are hushed, the waters rest. Every age has its pleasures ; every situation has its charms. It is not too late : it is only nine o'clock. He who renders a service, should forget it ; he who receives it, should remember it. That concerns you, does it not ? Would you thrive ? rise at five. (*If* you would thrive, etc.) Had he done his duty, he would not now be in disgrace.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- | | | | |
|---|-----|--|----|
| 1. How do we express our thoughts? | ¶ 2 | 8. What is a pronoun? | 9 |
| 2. In what two ways are words used? | 3 | 9. What is an article? | 10 |
| 3. Into what classes are words divided? | 5 | 10. What is a subject? | 11 |
| 4. Name the parts of speech? | 6 | 11. What is a predicate? | 12 |
| 5. How many and what properties belong to the parts of speech? | 7 | 12. What is a proposition? | 13 |
| 6. What are the chief things or ideas that lie at the basis of grammar? | | 13. What is a verb? | 14 |
| 7. What is a noun? | 8 | 14. What is an adjective? | 15 |
| | | 15. What is an adverb? | 16 |
| | | 16. What is a preposition? | 17 |
| | | 17. What is an adjunct? | 18 |
| | | 18. What is a conjunction? | 19 |
| | | 19. What is an interjection? | 20 |
| | | 20. What is gender? | 21 |

21. How many genders are there, and what are they called?	22	51. What is tense?	55
22. When is a noun or pronoun of the masculine gender? .	23	52. How many tenses are there, and what are they called? .	56
23. Of the feminine gender? .	24	53. What is said of the present tense?	57
24. Of the common gender? .	25	54. Of the present-perfect tense? .	58
25. Of the neuter gender? .	26	55. Of the past tense?	59
26. What is said of personified objects?	27	56. Of the past-perfect tense? .	60
27. What is person?	28	57. Of the future tense?	61
28. How many persons in grammar, and what are they called?	29	58. Of the future-perfect tense? .	62
29. When is a noun or pronoun of the first person?	30	59. What is said of the tenses of the subjunctive mood? .	63
30. Of the second person?	31	60. Of the tenses of the potential mood?	64
31. Of the third person?	32	61. Of <i>when, till, etc.</i> ?	65
32. What is number?	33	62. What are the forms of a tense?	66
33. How many numbers in grammar, and what are they called?	34	63. How many forms are there, and what are they called? .	67
34. When is a noun or pronoun of the singular number? .	35	64. What is said of the common form?	68
35. Of the plural number?	36	65. Of the emphatic form?	69
36. What is case?	37	66. Of the passive form?	70
37. How many cases are there, and what are they called? .	38	67. Of the progressive form?	71
38. When is a noun or pronoun in the nominative case? .	39	68. Of the ancient form?	72
39. In the possessive case?	40	69. What are the person and number of a verb?	73
40. In the objective case?	41	70. What is comparison?	74
41. When is a noun or pronoun in the same case as another?	42	71. How many degrees of comparison are there, and what are they called?	75
42. What is voice?	43	72. When is an adjective or an adverb in the positive degree?	76
43. How many voices are there, and what are they called? .	44	73. When, in the comparative?	77
44. When is a verb in the active voice?	45	74. When, in the superlative?	78
When, in the passive?	46	75. What is a phrase?	79
45. What is mood?	47	76. What is a clause?	80
46. How many moods are there, and what are they called? .	48	77. What is a sentence?	81
47. What does a verb in the indicative mood express?	49	78. Into what classes are nouns divided?	82
48. A verb in the subjunctive?	51	79. What is a proper noun?	83
49. A verb in the potential?	52	80. What is a common noun?	84
50. A verb in the imperative?	54	81. What is a collective noun?	85
		82. What is a participial noun?	86
		83. Into what classes are pronouns divided?	87
		84. What is a personal pronoun?	88

85. What is a relative pronoun? 89
86. What is the antecedent of a pronoun? 90
87. What is an interrogative pronoun? 91
88. What is an adjective pronoun? 92
89. Into what classes are adjective pronouns divided?
90. What is a compound personal pronoun? 93
91. What is a compound relative pronoun? 94
92. How are the articles classified? 95
93. How is the definite article used? 96
94. How is the indefinite article used? 97
95. Into what two chief classes are adjectives divided? 98
96. What is a descriptive adjective? 99
97. What is a definitive adjective? 100
98. What is a participial adjective? 101
99. What is a numeral adjective? 102
100. Into what classes are numeral adjectives divided?
101. What is a pronominal adjective? 103
102. Into what classes are pronominal adjectives divided?
103. How are verbs divided in regard to their form? 104
104. What is a regular verb? 105
105. What is an irregular verb? 106
106. Which are the principal parts of a verb? 107
107. What is the present tense? 108
108. What is the past tense? 109
109. What is the present participle? 110
110. What is the perfect participle? 111
111. How are verbs divided in regard to subjects? 112
112. What is a finite verb? 113
113. When is a verb not finite? 114
114. Verbs that are not finite, are divided into what two chief classes? 115
115. What is an infinitive? 116
116. What is a participle? 117
117. How many infinitives are there, and what are they called? 118
118. How many participles? 119
119. What is said of the present infinitive? 120
120. What is said of the present participle? 121
121. What is said of the perfect infinitive and participle? 122
122. How are the two infinitives distinguished? 123
123. When is *to* omitted? 124
124. How are the two participles distinguished? 125
125. What is a compound participle? 127
126. For what is the auxiliary participle *being* used? 128
127. For what is the auxiliary participle *having* used? 129
128. For what is the auxiliary participle *having been* used? 130
129. Which compound participles are present? and which are perfect? 131
130. How are verbs divided in regard to objects? 133
131. What is a transitive verb? 134
132. What is an intransitive verb? 135
133. What is a neuter verb? 136
134. How are verbs classified in regard to themselves? 137
135. What is a principal verb? 138
136. What is an auxiliary verb? 139



PART II.

INFLECTIONS.*

GENDER.

140. There are three methods of distinguishing the two sexes.

1. By different words.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor,	maid.	Lad,	lass.
Beau,	belle.	Lord,	lady.
Boy,	girl.	Male,	female.
Brother,	sister.	Man,	woman.
Buck,	doe.	Master, }	mistress.
Drake,	duck.	Mister, }	
Earl,	countess.	Mr.,	Mrs.
Father,	mother.	Master,	miss.
Gander,	goose.	Nephew,	niece.
Gentleman,	lady.	Papa,	mamma.
Hart,	roe.	Son,	daughter.
He,	she.	Ram, }	ewe.
Horse,	mare.	Buck, }	
Husband,	wife.	Uncle,	aunt.
King,	queen.	Wizard,	witch.

* We have hesitated as to whether we should adopt this word or the phrase "Tabular Matter." By *inflections* we here mean all the changes or variations of words to express grammatical properties; though the word is not generally used with so comprehensive a meaning. To these inflections we have added some lists of words that do not imply inflection, but that could not well be placed elsewhere, and that still require special attention in considering the syntax of our language.

2. By different endings.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot,	abbess.	Lion,	lioness.
Actor,	actress.	Negro,	negress.
Administrator,	administratrix.	Patron,	patroness.
Baron,	baroness.	Peer,	peeress.
Bridegroom,	bride.	Poet,	poetess.
Benefactor,	benefactress.	Priest,	priestess.
Chanter,	chantress.	Prophet,	prophetess.
Conductor,	conductress.	Protector,	protectress.
Count,	countess.	Prince,	princess.
Deacon,	deaconess.	Shepherd,	shepherdess.
Don,	donna.	Songster,	songstress.
Duke,	duchess.	Sorcerer,	sorceress.
Emperor,	empress.	Sultan,	{ sultana,
Executor,	executrix.		{ sultaness.
Giant,	giantess.	Tailor,	tailoress.
Governor,	governess.	Testator,	testatrix.
God,	goddess.	Tiger,	tigress.
Heir,	heiress.	Tutor,	tutoress.
Hero,	her/oïne	Widower,	widow.
Host,	hostess,	Henry,	Henrietta.
Hunter,	huntress.	Louis,	Louï'sa.
Instructor,	instructress.	Frank,	{ Frances.
Inventor,	inventress.	Francis,	
Jew,	Jewess.		

3. By using a distinguishing word.

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
He-goat,	she-goat.	Male descendants,	female descendants.
Man-servant,	maid-servant.		
Buck-rabbit,	doe-rabbit.	Mr. Reynolds,	{ Miss Reynolds.
			{ Mrs. Reynolds.

NUMBER.

141. Most nouns are made plural by adding *s* to the singular.

Sofa,	sofas	Ball,	balls.	Car,	cars.
Rod,	rods	Drum,	drums.	Window,	windows.
Bee,	bees.	Two,	twos.	Chimney,	chimneys.
Cliff,	cliffs.	Folio,	folios.	Monarch,	monarchs.

142. Nouns that end with *s*, *x*, *z*, *sh*, or soft *ch*, are made plural by adding *es* to the singular.

Glass,	glasses.	Box,	boxes.	Dish,	dishes.
Loss,	losses.	Topaz,	topazes.	Church,	churches.
Fox,	foxes.	Bush,	bushes.	Ditch,	ditches.

143. Nouns that end with *i*, *o*, *u*, or *y*, preceded each by a consonant, are made plural by adding *es* to the singular.

Alkali,	alkalies.	Potato,	potatoes.	Story,	stories.
Hero,	heroes.	Gnu,	gnues.	<i>F</i> is changed to <i>i</i> .	
Negro,	negroes.	Army,	armies.	See p. 155.	

To ascertain what is meant by vowels and consonants, see p. 152.

To *o*, preceded by a vowel, *s* only is added.

Ex. — Cuckoo, *cuckoos*.

To *o*, preceded by a consonant, *es* is added.

Ex. — Motto, *mottoes*.

Halo, *halos* ; memento, *mementos* ; quarto, *quartos* ; tyro, *tyros* ; and zero, *zeros*, — are some of the exceptions.

144. Proper nouns and foreign nouns take simply *s* ; or *es*, when *s* will not coalesce in sound.

Denny,	Dennys.	Canto,	cantos.	German,	Germans.
Dennie,	Dennies.	Piano,	pianos.	Mussulman,	Mussulmans.
Peri,	Peris.	Portico,	porticos.	Jones,	Joneses.

145. The following nouns change the ending into
ves : —

Beef,	beeves.	Life,	lives.	Wife,	wives.
Calf,	calves.	Loaf,	loaves.	Wolf,	wolves.
Elf,	elves.	Self,	selves.	Wharf,	{ wharfs, wharves.
Half,	halves.	Sheaf,	sheaves.		
Knife,	knives.	Shelf,	shelves.	Staff,	{ staffs (officers), staves (sticks).
Leaf,	leaves.	Thief,	thieves.	Flagstaff,	flagstaffs.

146. For forming the plural of some words, no general rule can be given ; and they are therefore said to be *irregular*.

Man,	men.	Mouse,	mice.	It,	they.
Woman,	women.	Louse,	lice.	This,	these.
Child,	children.	Cow,	cows, kine.	That,	those.
Ox,	oxen.	I,	we.	Am,	are.
Foot,	feet.	Thou,	ye.	Is,	are.
Goose,	geese.	He,	they.	Was,	were.
Tooth,	teeth.	She,	they.	Has,	have.

147. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular plural, but with a difference of meaning.

Brother,	<i>brothers</i> (of the same family),	<i>brethren</i> (of the same society).
Die,	<i>dies</i> (stamps for coining),	<i>dice</i> (small cubes for gaming).
Fish,	<i>fishes</i> (individuals),	<i>fish</i> (quantity or kind).
Genius,	<i>geniuses</i> (men of genius),	<i>genii</i> (spirits).
Index,	<i>indexes</i> (tables of contents),	<i>indices</i> (algebraic signs).
Penny,	<i>pennies</i> (pieces of money),	<i>pence</i> (how much in value).

148. Most compound words are expressed in the plural number, by making plural only that part of the word which is described by the rest.

Mouse-trap,	mouse-traps.	Brother-in-law,	brothers-in-law.
Cupful,	cupfuls.	Sister-in-law,	sisters-in-law.
Spoonful,	spoonfuls.	Son-in-law,	sons-in-law.
Ox-cart,	ox-carts.	Court-martial,	courts-martial.
Wagon-load,	wagon-loads.	Aid-de-camp,	aids-de-camp.

149. When the title *Mr.*, *Miss*, or *Dr.*, is used with a name, the whole term is made plural by making plural the title only.

<i>Mr.</i> Harper,	<i>Messrs.</i> Harper.	<i>Miss</i> Brown,	the <i>Misses</i> Brown ;
<i>Dr.</i> Lee,	<i>Drs.</i> Lee.	<i>Misses</i> Jane and Julia Brown.	

150. Many foreign nouns, adopted into the English language, retain their foreign plurals. Some have also regular English plurals.

1. The ending *a* is changed to *æ*, sometimes to *ata*.

Are'na,	{ arenas,	Larva,	larvæ.	Dogma,	{ dogmas,
	{ arenæ.	Minu'tia,	minutiæ,		{ dogmata.
For'mula,	{ formulæ,	Neb'ula,	nebulæ.	Stigma,	{ stigmas,
	{ formulas.	Ver'tebra,	vertebræ.		{ stigmata.

2. The ending *us* is changed to *i*.

Alumnus,	alumni.	Nucleus,	{ nucleuses,
	{ focuses,		{ nuclei.
Focus,	{ foci.	Radius,	{ radii,
	{ hippopotamuses,		{ radiuses.
Hippopot'amus,	{ hippopotami.	Stimulus,	stimuli.

3. The ending *um* or *on* is changed to *a*.

Animal'culum,	animalculā.	Gymna'sium,	{ gymnasia, gymnasiums.
Aqua'rium,	aquaria.	Herba'rium,	{ herbariums, herbaria.
Arca'num,	arcana.	Me'dium,	{ media, mediums.
Autom'aton,	{ automata, automatons.	Memoran'dum,	{ memorandums, memoranda.
Crite'ron,	{ criteria, criteria.		
Datum,	data.	Momentum,	momenta.
Efflu'vium,	effluvia.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Enco'mium,	{ encomiums, encomia.	Stratum,	{ strata, stratums.
Erratum,	errata.		

4. The ending *is* is changed to *es*.

Axis,	axes.	Metamor'phosis,	metamorphoses.
Anal'ysis,	analyses.	O'asis,	oases.
Antith'esis,	antitheses.	Phasis,	phases.
Basis,	bases.	Thesis,	theses.
Crisis,	crises.	Paren'thesis,	parentheses.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Synop'sis,	synopses.
Hypoth'esis,	hypotheses.	Syn'thesis,	syntheses.

5. Final *x* is changed to *ces*, and *ix* to *ices*.

Appen'dix,	{ appendixes, appendicēs.	Vertex,	{ vertexes, ver'ticēs.
Apex,	{ a'pexes, ap'ices.	Vortex,	{ vortexes, vor'ticēs.

6. Words that are less regular.

Bandit,	{ bandits, banditti.	Genus,	gen'era.
		Monsieur,	Messieurs
Beau,	{ beaus, beaux.	Mr.,	Messrs.
		Seraph,	{ seraphs, seraphim.
Cherub,	{ cherubs, cherubim.	Stamen,	stam'ina.

151. Letters, figures, and other characters, are made plural by adding 's (apostrophe and s).

Ex. — "The *a's* and *u's* in the first line." "By *5's* and *7's*."

The apostrophe is used to prevent ambiguity; thus,

"Cross your *t's* and dot your *i's*," is not the same as

"Cross your *ts* and dot your *is*."

152. Most nouns that denote substance, science, quality, or condition, can be used in the singular number only.

Bread	Hay	Pride	Goodness	Peace
Gold	Music	Patience	Darkness	Fever.

153. Such words are sometimes made plural, when different kinds are meant, or things that have the substance or quality.

Ex. — "*Teas* and *silks* are brought from China."

"I had but a few *coppers* left;" i. e., *cents*.

"The *heights* around the city;" i. e., the *high places*.

154. Some nouns, denoting generally objects that consist of two or many parts, are nearly always plural.

Aborig'inēs	Bowels	Head-quarters	Riches	Tidings
Annals	Cattle	Hose	Spectacles	Teens
Ashes	Clothes	Lungs	Stairs	Thanks
Billiards	Dregs	Goods	Snuffers	Tongs
Bitters	Eaves	Pinchers	Suds	Victuals.

155. Some nouns are used, without change of form, in either number.

Deer	Head	Dozen	Means	Wages
Sheep	(cattle)	Series	News	Bellows
Swine	Sail	Species	Alms	Gallows
Vermin	(ship)	Appara'tus	Odds	Summons
Grouse	Pair	Côrps	Amends	Politics.

News seems to be now used in the singular number only; *wages* is generally plural; and *pair* and *dozen* have also the plural form.

156. A collective noun is singular, when we regard the entire collection as one thing.

"The *army* was large." Not each man of it was large.

157. A collective noun is plural, when it has the plural form, or when we refer to the individuals composing the collection.

"The *armies* were large." "The *multitude* pursue pleasure."
That is, each one of the multitude pursues pleasure.

CASE.

158. The nominative and the objective case of nouns are alike.

"*John* kicked the *horse*." "The *horse* kicked *John*."

159. The nominative and the objective case of pronouns are generally different.

I,	<i>me</i> ;	he,	<i>him</i> .	" <i>I</i> met <i>him</i> ."	" <i>He</i> met <i>me</i> ."
She,	<i>her</i> ;	we,	<i>us</i> .	" <i>She</i> met <i>us</i> ."	" <i>We</i> met <i>her</i> ."
Who,	<i>whom</i> .			" <i>Who</i> came?"	" <i>Whom</i> did you see?"

160. The possessive case of nouns is formed by annexing to the name of the owner an apostrophe, or comma above the line, and then the letter *s*.

Boy, boy's.	Child, child's.	Women, women's.
Man, man's.	Children, children's.	Prince, prince's.
Men, men's.	Woman, woman's.	Burns, Burns's.

161. The apostrophe only is added to plural nouns that end with *s*.

Boys, boys'.	Soldiers, soldiers'.	Teachers, teachers'.
Girls, girls'.	Horses, horses'.	Pupils, pupils'.

Conscience and *goodness* also have only the apostrophe ; as,
 "For *conscience*' sake ;" "For *goodness*' sake."

Write the following nouns in the possessive case : —

Earth, nature, morning, life, river, city, James.

Mountains, ladies, gentlemen, rivers, ocean, churches.

PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

162. The chief personal pronouns are *I*, *thou* or *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it*.

Thou is used in the solemn style.

You is used in the familiar style.

The teacher should explain what is meant.

We denotes the speaker, with others included.

Ours, **yours**, **hers**, and sometimes *mine* and *thine*, are each equivalent to the simple possessive pronoun and a noun ; as, "This is my hat, and that is *yours*," i. e., *your hat*.

It sometimes denotes merely the state or condition of things, or a point of time. "*It* rains." "*It* is 12 o'clock." "*It* was moonlight on the Persian Sea."

It sometimes introduces a sentence, and is explained by a following word, phrase, or clause. "*It* was *he*." "*It* is mean to take advantage of another's distress." What is mean ? "*It* is perfectly plain that a straight line is the shortest distance from one point to another." What is plain ?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

163. The chief relative pronouns are, —

Who ; applied to persons.

Which ; applied to things, and to animals inferior to man.

What ; used for *thing which* or *things which*.

That ; sometimes preferred to *who* or *which*.

As ; which is a relative pronoun when it follows *such*, *many*, or *same*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

164. The interrogative pronouns are, —

Who ; which asks for the name of a person.

Which ; applied to either persons or things in asking for a particular one of two or more.

What ; which asks for the kind of thing, or for the character or occupation.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

165. The adjective pronouns may be divided into, —

1. *Distributive*, which relate to objects taken *singly*.

Ex. — Each, either, neither.

2. *Demonstrative*, which point out objects *definitely*.

Ex. — This, these, that, those, same, former, latter.

3. *Indefinite*, which relate to objects *indefinitely*.

Ex. — One, other, any, some, such, several, all, both, none.

4. *Reciprocal*, which imply mutual relation.

Ex. — Each other, one another.

DECLENSION.

166. To Decline a noun or pronoun is to show, in some regular way, what forms it has to express its grammatical properties.

NOUNS.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
Boy,	boy's,	boy ;	boys,	boys',	boys.
Man,	man's,	man ;	men,	men's,	men.
Lady,	lady's,	lady ;	ladies,	ladies',	ladies.
Fox,	fox's,	fox ;	foxes,	foxes',	foxes.
Smith,	Smith's,	Smith ;	Smiths,	Smiths',	Smiths.
John,	John's,	John.			

PRONOUNS.

The pronouns *one* and *other* are also declined like nouns.

One,	one's,	one ;	ones,	ones',	ones.
Other,	other's,	others ;	others,	others',	others.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
NOMINATIVE.	I,	we,
POSSESSIVE.	my <i>or</i> mine,	our <i>or</i> ours,
OBJECTIVE.	me ;	us.

SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
NOMINATIVE.	Thou <i>or</i> you,	ye <i>or</i> you,
POSSESSIVE.	thy <i>or</i> thine, }	your <i>or</i> yours,
	your <i>or</i> yours, }	
OBJECTIVE.	thee <i>or</i> you ;	you.

THIRD PERSON.

Masculine.		Feminine.		Neuter.	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
NOM. He,	they,	She,	they,	It,	they,
POSS. his,	{ their or theirs,	{ her or hers,	{ their or theirs,	its,	{ their or theirs,
OBJ. him ;	them,	her ;	them.	it ;	them.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1ST PERSON.	Myself ;	ourselves.
2D PERSON.	Thyself or yourself ;	yourselves.
3D PERSON.	Himself, herself, itself ;	themselves.

RELATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

	<i>Nominative.</i>	<i>Possessive.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>	
SINGULAR OR PLURAL	Who,	whose,	whom. (-ever or -soever.)	
	Which,	(whose,)	which.	"
	What,	_____	what.	"
	That,	(whose,)	that.	
	As,	_____	as.	
	None,	_____	none.	

What is the objective corresponding to —

I ? — thou ? — we ? — ye ? — you ? — he ? — she ? — it ?
— they ? — who ?

What is the nominative corresponding to —

Me ? — us ? — thee ? — him ? — whom ? — her ? — hers ?
— them ? — themselves ? — herself ? — it ? — which ?

Form the compound pronoun : —

My, our, thy, your, him, her, it, them, who, which, what.

Of what gender, person, number, and case is each of the following pronouns ?

Him, his, its, he, them, it, I, you, thy, their, she, thou, me,
your, us, they, my, mine, thine, yours, hers, others, theirs,
we, thee, our, ours, ye, myself, themselves, ourselves.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

The Two Past Forms Different.

<i>Present. Past, or Pret. Perf. Participle.</i>			<i>Present. Past, or Pret. Perf. Participle</i>		
Arise,	arose,	arisen.*	Crow,	crowed,	crowed.
Awake,	awoke,	awaked.	Dare	durst,	dared.
Be or am,	was,	been.	(to venture),	dared,	
Bear	bore,	born.	(Dare, to challenge; regular.)		
(bring forth),	bare,		Do,	did,	done.
Bear	bore,	borne.	Draw,	drew,	drawn.
(to carry),			Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Beat,	beat,	beaten,	Drive,	drove,	driven.
		beat.	Eat,	ate,	eaten,
Become,	became,	become.		eat,	eat.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.	Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Beget,	begot,	begotten,	Fly,	flew,	flown.
		begot.	Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Begin,	began,	begun.	Forget,	forgot,	forgotten,
Bid,	bid,	bid,		forgot,	forgot.
	bade,	bidden.	Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Bite,	bit,	bitten,	Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
		bit.	Get,	got,	got,
Blow,	blew,	blown.		gotten.	
Break,	broke,	broken.	Give,	gave,	given.
Chide,	chid,	chidden,	Go,	went,	gone.
		chid.	Grave,	graved,	graven, R.†
Choose,	chose,	chosen.	Grow,	grew,	grown.
Cleave	cleaved,	cleaved.	Heave,	heaved,	heaved.
(to adhere),	clave,			hove,	
Cleave	cleft,	cleft,	Hew,	hewed,	hewn, R.
(to split),	clove,	cloven.			
Come,	came,	come.			

* The pupil may also mention the present participle just before he mentions the perfect.

† R. denotes that the regular form may also be used in stead of the other.

Present. Past, or Pret. Perf. Participle.

Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hold,	held,	held.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	laded,	laden.
Lie (<i>recline</i>),	lay,	lain.
<i>(Lie, to speak falsely; regular.)</i>		
Mow,	mowed,	mown, R.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Ride,	rode,	rode, ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, R.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seethe,	seethed,	seethed, sodden.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.
Shear,	sheared,	shorn, R.
Show,	showed,	shown, R.
Shrink,	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Slide,	slid, R.,	slidden, slid, R.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.

Present. Past, or Pret. Perf. Participle.

Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, R.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spit.
<i>(Spit, to pierce with a spit; regular.)</i>		
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stride,	strode,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow,	strowed,	strown, R.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Thrive,	thrived,	thrived, throve, thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Write,	wrote,	written.

The Two Past or the three Forms Alike.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past, or Pret.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Pret.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Abide,	abode,	abode.	Deal,	děalt,	děalt.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.	Dig,	dug, R.,	dug, R.
Belay,	belaid, R.,	belaid, R.	Dwell,	dwelt, R.,	dwelt, R.
Bend,	bent, R.,	bent, R.	Dream,	dreamed, dreamed,	
Bereave,	bereft, R.,	bereft, R.		drěamt, drěamt.	
Beseech,	besought,	besought.	Feed,	fed,	fed.
Bet,	bet, R.,	bet, R.	Feel,	felt,	felt.
Betide,	betided, betided,		Fight,	fought,	fought.
	betid,	betid.	Find,	found,	found.
Bind,	bound,	bound.	Flee,	fled,	fled.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.	Fling,	flung,	flung.
Bless,	blessed, blessed,		Gild,	gilded, gilded,	
	blest,	blest.		gilt,	gilt.
Breed,	bred,	bred.	Gird,	girt, R.,	girt, R.
Bring,	brought, brought.		Grind,	ground, ground.	
Build,	built,	built.	Hang,	hung, R.,	hung, R. ^a
Burn,	burned, burned,		Have,	had,	had.
	burnt,	burnt.	Hear,	heard,	heard.
Burst,	burst,	burst.	Hit,	hit,	hit.
Buy,	bought, bought.		Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Cast,	cast,	cast.	Keep,	kept,	kept.
Catch,	caught, caught.		Kneel,	knelt, R.,	knelt, R.
Cling,	clung,	clung.	Knit,	knit, R.,	knit, R.
Clothe,	clothed, clothed,		Lay,	laid,	laid.
	clad,	clad.	Lead,	led,	led.
Cost,	cost,	cost.	Lean,	leaned, leaned,	
Creep,	crept,	crept.		lěant, lěant.	
Cut,	cut,	cut.	Leave,	left,	left.
			Lend,	lent,	lent.

(a.) Hang, hanged, hanged; to suspend by the neck with intent to kill: but the distinction is not always observed.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Pret.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Pret.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Let,	let,	let.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Light,	lighted,	lighted,	Sling,	slung,	slung.
	lit,	lit.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Lose,	lost,	lost.	Slit,	slit, R.,	slit, R.
Make,	made,	made.	Smell,	smelt, R.,	smelt, R.
Mean,	mēant,	mēant.	Speed,	sped,	sped.
Meet,	met,	met.	Spell,	spelled,	spelled,
Pass,	passed,	passed,		spelt,	spelt.
		past. ^a	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Pay,	paid,	paid.	Spill,	spilt, R.,	spilt, R.
Pen	penned,	penned,	Split,	split,	split.
(<i>to fence in</i>),	pent,	pent.			
(<i>Pen, to write</i> ; regular.)			Spoil,	spoiled,	spoiled,
Put,	put,	put.		spoilt,	spoilt.
Quit,	quit, R.,	quit, R.	Spread,	spread,	spread.
	rapped,	rapped,	Stay,	staid, R.,	staid, R. ^c
Rap,	rapt,	rapt. ^b	String,	strung,	strung, R. ^d
Read,	read,	read.	Stave,	stove, R.,	stove, R.
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Say,	said,	said.	Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Sting,	stung,	stung.
Sell,	sold,	sold.	Sweat,	swēat, R.,	swēat, R.
Send,	sent,	sent.	Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Set,	set,	set.	Swing,	swung,	swung.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Shine,	shone,	shone.	Tell,	told,	told.
Shoe,	shod,	shod. .	Think,	thought,	thought.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Shred,	shred,	shred.			
Shut,	shut,	shut.	Wake,	waked,	waked,
Sit,	sat,	sat.		woke,	woke.
			Weep,	wept,	wept.

(a.) *Past* is used as an adjective or as a noun. (b.) Rap, rapt, rapt; to seize with rapture. (c.) Stay, stayed, stayed; to cause to stop. (d.) Stringed instruments.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Prst.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past, or Pret.</i>	<i>Perf. Participle.</i>
Wet,	wet,	wet.	May, .	might,	"
Win,	won,	won.	Must,	must,	"
Wind,	wound,	wound.	Ought,	ought,	"
	worked,	worked,	(wanting,)	quoth,	"
Work,	wrought,	wrought.	Shall,	should,	"
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.	Will,	would,	"
			(Will, wish, bequeath ; regular.)		
Beware, (wanting,)	(wanting.)		Wit,	} wot,* }	}
Can,	could,	"	Wot,*		
Do (auxil'y),	did,	"	Wis,*		
Have,	" had,	"	* Gone nearly out of use.		

Those verbs of the foregoing list, which have more than one form for some of their principal parts, are called *redundant*; as, *kneel* and *cleave*.

Those verbs which want some of their principal parts, are called *defective*. Most of the defective verbs are auxiliary verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

167. The auxiliary verbs are, —

Be and its variations; used in the passive and the progressive form.

Do and **Did**; used generally for emphasis.

Have and **Had**; used to express the perfect tenses.

Can and **Could**; used to express power or possibility.

May and **Might**; used to express possibility, permission, or wishing.

Must; used to express necessity.

Shall and **Should**; generally used to express compulsion or duty.

Will and **Would**; generally used to express inclination or tendency.

CONJUGATION.

168. The Conjugation of a verb is the proper combination and arrangement of its parts, in their full order.

“In their full order,” — that is, in all the persons and numbers of each mood, tense, etc. *Conjugation* embraces *all* the persons and numbers; *synopsis*, only *one* person and number.

169. A *Synop'sis* of a verb is only an outline of it, which shows its parts in a single person and number, through the moods and tenses.

SYNOPSIS of *write*, with *I*, through the indicative mood: —

Present,	<i>I write.</i>	Present-Perfect,	<i>I have written.</i>
Past,	<i>I wrote.</i>	Past-Perfect,	<i>I had written.</i>
Future,	<i>I shall write.</i>	Future-Perfect,	<i>I shall have written.</i>

170. The irregular verb *BE* is conjugated thus: —

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Be or am,	was,	being,	been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>First Person.</i>	I am,	1. We are,
<i>Second Person.</i>	You are,	2. You are,
<i>Third Person.</i>	He, she, or it, is;	3. They are.

Past Tense.

1. I was,	1. We were,
2. You were,	2. You were,
3. He was;	3. They were.

Present-Perfect Tense.**SINGULAR.**

1. I have been,
2. You have been,
3. He has been ;

PLURAL.

1. We have been,
2. You have been,
3. They have been.

Past-Perfect Tense.

1. I had been,
2. You had been,
3. He had been ;

1. We had been,
2. You had been,
3. They had been.

Future Tense.

Simple futurity ; foretelling.

1. I shall be,
2. You will be,
3. He will be ;

1. We shall be,
2. You will be,
3. They will be.

Promise, threat, or determination.

1. I will be,
2. You shall be,
3. He shall be ;

1. We will be,
2. You shall be,
3. They shall be.

Future-Perfect Tense.

Simple futurity ; foretelling.

1. I shall have been,
2. You will have been,
3. He will have been ;

1. We shall have been,
2. You will have been,
3. They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

1. If I be,
2. If you be,
3. If he be ;

1. If we be,
2. If you be,
3. If they be.

Past Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------------------|------------|
| 1. If I were, | Were I, | 1. If we were, | Were we, |
| 2. If you were, | Were you, | 2. If you were, | Were you, |
| 3. If he were ; or, | Were he ; | 3. If they were ; or, | Were they. |

Past-Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I had been, | 1. If we had been, |
| 2. If you had been, | 2. If you had been, |
| 3. If he had been ; | 3. If they had been. |

Or thus : —

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Had I been, | 1. Had we been, |
| 2. Had you been, | 2. Had you been, |
| 3. Had he been ; | 3. Had they been. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. I may be, | 1. We may be, |
| 2. You may be, | 2. You may be, |
| 3. He may be ; | 3. They may be. |

In the same way conjugate *can be* and *must be*.

Present-Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have been, | 1. We may have been, |
| 2. You may have been, | 2. You may have been, |
| 3. He may have been ; | 3. They may have been. |

In the same way conjugate *must have been* and " Can I have been ? "

Past Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I might be, | 1. We might be, |
| 2. You might be, | 2. You might be, |
| 3. He might be ; | 3. They might be. |

In the same way conjugate *could be*, *would be*, and *should be*.

Past-Perfect Tense.**SINGULAR.**

1. I might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. He might have been ;

PLURAL.

1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,
3. They might have been.

In the same way conjugate *could have been*, *would have been*, and *should have been*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.**Present Tense.**

2. Be thou ; or, Do thou be. 2. Be ye ; or, Do ye be.

Present.**Perfect.****Compound.**

INFINITIVES.— To be. To have been.

PARTICIPLES.— Being. Been. Having been.

Synopsis of the verb *be*, with *thou*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou art.

Present-Perfect Tense, Thou hast been.

Past Tense, Thou wast, or wert.

Past-Perfect Tense, Thou hadst been.

Future Tense, Thou shalt or wilt be.

Future-Perfect Tense, Thou shalt or wilt have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, If thou be.

Past Tense, If thou wert ; or, Wert thou.

Past-Perfect Tense, If thou hadst been ; or, Hadst thou been.

"If thou *were*," and "If thou *had been*," are sometimes used by good writers.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must be.

Present-Perfect Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must have been.

Past Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst be.

Past-Perfect Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Be thou ; or, Do thou be.

171. The regular verb *RŌW* is conjugated thus :—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present Participle.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Row,	rowed,	rowing,	rowed.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I rōw,
2. You row,
3. He rows ;

PLURAL.

1. We row,
2. You row,
3. They row.

Let the verbs *love*, *rule*, *permit*, *carry*, *strike*, and *see*, be now conjugated in the same way by other members of the class. So, in each following tense.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Do, combined with the present infinitive.*

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I do row, | 1. We do row, |
| 2. You do row, | 2. You do row, |
| 3. He does row ; | 3. They do row. |

* The infinitive, in combining with auxiliary verbs, drops the sign *to*.

Past Tense.**SINGULAR.**

1. I rowed,
2. You rowed,
3. He rowed ;

PLURAL.

1. We rowed,
2. You rowed,
3. They rowed.

EMPHATIC FORM.

Did, combined with the present infinitive.

- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| 1. I did row, | 1. We did row, |
| 2. You did row, | 2. You did row, |
| 3. He did row ; | 3. They did row. |

Present-Perfect Tense.

Have, combined with the perfect participle.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I have rowed, | 1. We have rowed, |
| 2. You have rowed, | 2. You have rowed, |
| 3. He has rowed ; | 3. They have rowed. |

In the solemn style, *hath*, *roweth*, and *doth* row, are used for *has*, *rows*, and *does* row.

Past-Perfect Tense.

Had, combined with the perfect participle.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I had rowed, | 1. We had rowed, |
| 2. You had rowed, | 2. You had rowed, |
| 3. He had rowed ; | 3. They had rowed. |

Future Tense.

Shall or *will*, combined with the present infinitive.

Simple futurity ; foretelling.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I shall row, | 1. We shall row, |
| 2. You will row, | 2. You will row, |
| 3. He will row ; | 3. They will row. |

Promise, threat, or determination.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I will row, | 1. We will row, |
| 2. You shall row, | 2. You shall row, |
| 3. He shall row ; | 3. They shall row. |

Future-Perfect Tense.

Shall or *will*, combined with the perfect infinitive.

Simple futurity ; foretelling.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall have rowed, | 1. We shall have rowed, |
| 2. You will have rowed, | 2. You will have rowed, |
| 3. He will have rowed ; | 3. They will have rowed. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

The tenses of the subjunctive mood are formed like those of the indicative.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I row, | 1. If we row, |
| 2. If you row, | 2. If you row, |
| 3. If he row ; | 3. If they row. |

EMPHATIC FORM.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. If I do row, | 1. If we do row, |
| 2. If you do row, | 2. If you do row, |
| 3. If he do row ; | 3. If they do row. |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. If I rowed, | 1. If we rowed, |
| 2. If you rowed, | 2. If you rowed, |
| 3. If he rowed ; | 3. If they rowed. |

EMPHATIC FORM.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I did row, | 1. If we did row, |
| 2. If you did row, | 2. If you did row, |
| 3. If he did row ; | 3. If they did row. |

Past-Perfect Tense.**SINGULAR.**

1. If I had rowed,
2. If you had rowed,
3. If he had rowed ;

PLURAL.

1. If we had rowed,
2. If you had rowed,
3. If they had rowed.

Or thus : —

1. Had I rowed,
2. Had you rowed,
3. Had he rowed ;

1. Had we rowed,
2. Had you rowed,
3. Had they rowed.

POTENTIAL MOOD.**Present Tense.**

May, can, or must, combined with the present infinitive.

1. I may row,
2. You may row,
3. He may row ;

1. We may row,
2. You may row,
3. They may row.

Present-Perfect Tense.

May, can, or must, combined with the perfect infinitive.

1. I may have rowed,
2. You may have rowed,
3. He may have rowed ;

1. We may have rowed,
2. You may have rowed,
3. They may have rowed.

In the same way conjugate must have rowed.

Past Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the present infinitive.

1. I might row,
2. You might row,
3. He might row ;

1. We might row,
2. You might row,
3. They might row.

In the same way conjugate could row, would row, and should row.

Past Perfect-Tense.

Might, could, would, or should, combined with the perfect infinitive.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might have rowed, | 1. We might have rowed, |
| 2. You might have rowed, | 2. You might have rowed, |
| 3. He might have rowed ; | 3. They might have rowed. |

In the same way conjugate *could have rowed, would have rowed, and should have rowed.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

2. Row thou ; or, Do thou row. Row ye ; or, Do ye row.

Present.

Perfect.

Compound.

INFINITIVES. — To row. To have rowed.

PARTICIPLES. — Rowing. * Rowed. Having rowed.

Synopsis of the verb *row*, with *thou*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou rowest, or dost row.

Present-Perfect Tense, Thou hast rowed.

Past Tense, Thou rowedst, or didst row.

Past-Perfect Tense, Thou hadst rowed.

Future Tense, Thou shalt or wilt row.

Future-Perfect Tense, Thou shalt or wilt have rowed.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, If thou row, or do row.

Past Tense, If thou rowed, didst row, or did row.

Past-Perfect Tense, If thou hadst rowed.

* The simple perfect participle of a transitive verb, in the active voice, is used only in combination with the auxiliary verb *have*.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must row.

Present-Perfect Tense, Thou mayst, canst, or must have rowed.

Past Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst row.

Past-Perfect Tense, Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, or shouldst have rowed.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, Row thou; or, Do thou row.

In like manner give the synopsis of the verb *love*, with *thou*, through all the moods; — with *he*; — with *they*.

In like manner give the synopsis of the verb *see*, with *I*; — with *thou*; — with *he*; — with *they*.

THE PASSIVE FORM AND THE PROGRESSIVE FORM OF THE VERB ROW.

The passive or the progressive form of any tense consists of the corresponding tense of the verb *be*, combined with the simple perfect or present participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

		SINGULAR.		
		Neuter.	Passive.	Progressive.
Present Tense.	Person.	1. I am	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You are	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. He is	<i>rowed;</i>	<i>rowing;</i>
	PLURAL.			
		1. We are	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You are	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. They are	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

The pupil should first conjugate the verb *be*, through both numbers; then the passive verb, and then the verb in the progressive form.

		SINGULAR.		
Past Tense.	{	1. I was	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. He was	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
		PLURAL.		
	{	1. We were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. They were	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>
		SINGULAR.		
Present- Perfect Tense.	{	1. I have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. He has been	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
		PLURAL.		
	{	1. We have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. They have been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>
		SINGULAR.		
Past- Perfect Tense.	{	1. I had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. He had been	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
		PLURAL.		
	{	1. We had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. They had been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>
		Simple futurity ; foretelling.		
		SINGULAR.		
Future Tense.	{	1. I shall be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You will be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. He will be	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
		PLURAL.		
	{	1. We shall be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		2. You will be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
		3. They will be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

Promise, threat, or determination.

SINGULAR.

Or thus: {	1. I will be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You shall be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They shall be	<i>rowed;</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. We will be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You shall be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They shall be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

Simple futurity; foretelling.

SINGULAR.

Future- Perfect Tense. {	1. I shall have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You will have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. He will have been	<i>rowed;</i>	<i>rowing;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. We shall have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You will have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They will have been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Present Tense. {	1. If I be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If he be	<i>rowed;</i>	<i>rowing;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. If we be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If they be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

		SINGULAR.	
Past Tense.	1. If I were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If he were	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. If we were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you were	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If they were	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

		SINGULAR.	
Or thus:	1. Were I	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. Were you	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. Were he	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. Were we	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. Were you	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. Were they	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

		SINGULAR.	
Past-Perfect Tense.	1. If I had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If he had been	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. If we had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. If you had been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. If they had been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

		SINGULAR.	
Or thus:	1. Had I been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. Had you been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. Had he been	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1. Had we been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. Had you been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. Had they been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

POTENTIAL MOOD.

SINGULAR.

Present Tense.	1. I may be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You may be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. He may be	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>

PLURAL.

	1. We may be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You may be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They may be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

In like manner conjugate *can be* and *must be*.

SINGULAR.

Present- Perfect Tense.	1. I may have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You may have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. He may have been	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>

PLURAL.

	1. We may have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You may have been	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They may have been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

In like manner conjugate *must have been*.

SINGULAR.

Past Tense.	1. I might be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You might be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. He might be	<i>rowed ;</i>	<i>rowing ;</i>

PLURAL.

	1. We might be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	2. You might be	<i>rowed,</i>	<i>rowing,</i>
	3. They might be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

In like manner conjugate *could be*, *would be*, and *should be*.

		SINGULAR.	
Past-Perfect Tense.	1.	I might have been	<i>rowed, rowing,</i>
	2.	You might have been	<i>rowed, rowing,</i>
	3.	He might have been	<i>rowed; rowing;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	1.	We might have been	<i>rowed, rowing,</i>
	2.	You might have been	<i>rowed, rowing,</i>
	3.	They might have been	<i>rowed. rowing.</i>

In like manner conjugate *could have been*, *would have been*, and *should have been*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

		SINGULAR.	
Present Tense.	2.	Be thou	<i>rowed; rowing;</i>
	PLURAL.		
	2.	Be ye	<i>rowed. rowing.</i>

INFINITIVES.

Present.	To be	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>
Perfect.	To have been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

PARTICIPLES.

Present.	Being	<i>rowed.</i>	
Perfect.		<i>Rowed.</i>	
Compound.	Having been	<i>rowed.</i>	<i>rowing.</i>

The synopsis with *thou* is similar to the synopsis given on p. 78.

How many and what tenses has the *indicative* mood? — the *subjunctive*? — the *potential*? — the *imperative*?

What *infinitives* are there? — what *participles*?

In what mood and tense do you find *do*? — *did*? — *have*? — *had*? — *shall* or *will*? — *shall* or *will* have? — *may*, *can*, or *must*? — *may*, *can*, or *must* have? — *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*? — *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should* have?

Tell of what mood and tense, then conjugate throughout the tense, beginning with the first person singular: —

I study. He suffered. We have lost it. I had been ploughing. Were I. Had I been. If he were. Were I

invited. Had I been invited. If I be not invited. They shall have written. I lay. We read. It may pass. You should have come. We may have been robbed. I was speaking. It is rising. Had you been studying. Do you hope? Did she smile? If I do fail. If thou rely. Thou art. Art thou? He forgiveth. It must have happened.

Predicate each of the following verbs correctly of THOU; then of HE, and of THEY: —

Am, was, have been, would have been, are deceived, had been, do say, did maintain, gave, touched, cast, amass, recommend, be discouraged, shall have been, will pardon, may have been rejoicing, was elected, should have been elected.

Give, in the order of the Conjugation, the infinitives, then the participles; first in the active voice, and then in the passive if the verb can have the passive voice: —

Move, rise, spring, degrade, drown, call, overwhelm, bleed.

COMPARISON.

172. To express degrees below the positive, we use *less* and *least*.

Positive, *good*; comparative, *less good*; superlative, *least good*.

Beautiful,	<i>less beautiful,</i>	<i>least beautiful.</i>
Worthy,	<i>less worthy,</i>	<i>least worthy.</i>
So,	<i>less so,</i>	<i>least so.</i>

173. To express degrees above the positive, words of one syllable are compared by annexing *er* for the comparative degree, and *est* for the superlative.

Positive, *hard*; comparative, *harder*; superlative, *hardest*.

Great, greater, greatest.	Gay, gayer, gayest.
Small, smaller, smallest.	Dry, drier, driest.
Wise, wiser, wisest.	Sad, sadder, saddest.

While studying this section, the pupil should review the Rules for Spelling; p. 155

174. Words of two syllables that end with *y* or *le*, or have the accent on the second syllable, are also compared by annexing *er* and *est*.

Lovely, lovelier, loveliest.	Able, abler, ablest.
Happy, happier, happiest.	Polite, politer, politest.
Noble, nobler, . noblest.	Remote, remoter, remotest.

175. Other words of two syllables, all words of more syllables, and sometimes words of one syllable, are compared by *more* and *most*.

Faithful,	<i>more</i> faithful,	<i>most</i> faithful.
Active,	<i>more</i> active,	<i>most</i> active.
Industrious,	<i>more</i> industrious,	<i>most</i> industrious.
Diligently,	<i>more</i> diligently,	<i>most</i> diligently.

"The *more* nice and *elegant* parts." — Johnson.

"Homer's eyes were the *most* quick and piercing I ever saw." Swift.

176. Some of the most common adjectives and adverbs are not compared according to the foregoing rules, and are therefore said to be *irregular*.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>	<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good,	better,	best.	(Up,)	upper,	uppermost.
Bad, }	worse,	worst.	(In,)	inner,	{ inmost,
Ill, }					{ innermost.
Evil, }					{ outmost,
Much, }	more,	most.	(Out,)	outer,	{ utmost,
Many, }			(utter,)	(utter,)	{ uttermost.
Little,	less,	least.	Near,	nearer,	{ nearest,
Fore,	former,	{ foremost,			{ next.
		{ first.	Late,	{ later,	{ latest,
Hind,	hinder,	hindmost.		{ latter,	{ last.
Far,	farther,	farthest.	Old,	{ older,	{ oldest,
(Forth,)	further,	furthest.		{ elder,	{ eldest.

Elder and *eldest* are applied to persons only ; *older* and *oldest*, to persons or things. *Later* and *latest* refer to time ; *latter* and *last*, generally to order in place.

IRREGULAR ADVERBS.

Well,	better,	best.	Little,	less,	least.
Badly or ill,	worse,	worst.	Far,	farther,	farthest.
Much,	more,	most.	Forth,	further,	furthest.

177. A word can not be compared with propriety, when it denotes something that can not exist in different degrees.

Ex. — Equal, level, square, naked, straight, here, now, one, two, dead, empty, four-footed.

178. Adverbs are compared like adjectives, except that they are more frequently compared by *more* and *most*, and that a smaller number can be compared.

Soon,	sooner,	soonest.
Early,	earlier,	earliest.
Wisely,	<i>more</i> wisely,	<i>most</i> wisely.
Wisely,	<i>less</i> wisely,	<i>least</i> wisely.

179. When a part of a compound or derived word is changed in form, it is generally changed in the same way as if it stood alone.

Boatman,	boatmen.	Good-looking,	<i>better</i> -looking,	<i>best</i> -looking.
Dormouse,	dormice.	Long-legged,	<i>longer</i> -legged,	<i>longest</i> -legged.
Landlord,	landlady	Overtake,	<i>overtook</i> ,	<i>overtaken</i> .
Man-servant,	men-servants.	Undergo,	<i>underwent</i> ,	<i>undergone</i> .

ADVERBS.

180. Adverbs may be divided into various classes.

1. *Adverbs of Manner* ; which show *how*, and generally end with *ly*.
2. *Adverbs of Place* ; which show *where*, *whence*, or *whither* or denote position or direction.

3. *Adverbs of Time*, present, past, or future ; which show *when, how long, or how often*.
4. *Adverbs of Degree, Extent, or Quantity* ; which generally show *how far or how much*.
5. *Modal Adverbs* ; which show how the statement is made or regarded.
6. *Conjunctive Adverbs* ; which modify and connect.

1. ADVERBS OF MANNER.

How,	well,	fast,	somehow,	wisely,
so,	ill,	adrift,	apart,	foolishly,
thus,	else,	headlong,	together,	sweetly,
as,	like,	otherwise,	slowly,	lovingly.

2. ADVERBS OF PLACE.

Here,	hither,	hence,	yonder,	away,
there,	thither,	thence,	up,	afar,
where,	whither,	whence,	down,	ahead.

3. ADVERBS OF TIME.

Now,	ever,	seldom,	soon,	to-day,
when,	never,	always,	early,	yesterday,
then,	often,	forever,	lately,	to-morrow.

Adverbs of Number : Once, twice, etc. These denote time.

Adverbs of Order : First, secondly, thirdly, lastly, etc. These denote either time or place.

4. ADVERBS OF DEGREE, EXTENT, OR QUANTITY.

Much,	little,	so,	enough,	partly,
more,	less,	too,	just,	chiefly,
most,	least,	as,	even,	generally,
very,	quite,	how,	fully,	somewhat.

Adverbs of Addition, Exclusion, or Emphasis. — Too, besides, only, also, even, especially, not.

5. MODAL ADVERBS.

Of Affirmation.— Yes, yea, ay, verily, surely, certainly, forsooth, indeed, doubtless, truly, verily.

Of Negation.— Not, nay, no, nowise, noway.

Of Doubt.— Perhaps, probably, perchance, may-be.

Of Cause or Means.— Why, therefore, wherefore, hereby, whereby, wherewith, accordingly, hence, thence, consequently.

Of Position.— There. "*There* was no one there."

There, when thus used, simply helps the position of the words, by enabling them to take a more emphatic arrangement.

6. CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

When, while, as, before, till, whereby,
where, why, how, after, since, wherewith.

181. A **Conjunctive Adverb** is an adverb that usually connects two clauses, by relating to a word in one and forming a part of the other.

Ex. — "The seed grew up *where* it fell."

The seed grew up *from the place* | *on which* it fell.

Where is thus resolved into two phrases that attach themselves respectively to each of the clauses; or it modifies both the verbs *grew* and *fell* by joining its clause to the former, to denote the place.

7. ADVERBIAL PHRASES.

182. Some phrases are used as adverbs.

In general, at least, as yet, to and fro, long ago,
in vain, at present, by and by, ever and anon, no more.

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

Learn the List, and tell between what words each preposition shows the relation

A. "We went *a* fishing."

About. "To play *about* the house." "To dine *about* noon."

Above. "The stars *above* us." "To be *above* meanness."

Across. "A tree lying *across* the road "

- After.** "To start *after* dinner."
- Against.** "We rowed *against* the stream."
- Along.** "The cloud is gilded *along* the border."
- Amid, amidst.** "The rogues escaped *amidst* the confusion."
- Among, amongst.** "Flowers perish *among* weeds."
- Around, round.** "Captain Cook sailed *round* the world."
- At.** "She lives *at* home." "The sun sets *at* six o'clock."
- Before.** "The tree *before* the house." "To rise *before* day."
- Behind.** "The squirrel hid *behind* the tree."
- Below.** "The James River is very crooked *below* Richmond."
- Beneath.** "The chasm *beneath* us." "He is *beneath* contempt."
- Beside, besides.** "A large sycamore grew *beside* the river."
- Between.** "The river flows *between* two hills."
- Betwixt.** "He was crushed to death *betwixt* two cars."
- Beyond.** "The life *beyond* the grave is a mystery."
- But.** "Whence all *but* him had fled."
- By.** "A lily *by* a brook." "Demolished *by* soldiers."
- Concerning.** "He spoke *concerning* virtue."
- Down.** "The boat went *down* the river."
- During.** "He remained abroad *during* the war."
- Ere.** "He came *ere* noon."
- Except, excepting.** "All *except* him were set free."
- For.** "To sell *for* money." "A collection *for* the poor."
- From.** "A branch *from* the tree." "Judge *from* the description."
- In.** "A pond *in* a meadow." "To play *in* the afternoon."
- Into.** "To step *into* a carriage, and then ride *in* it."
- Notwithstanding.** "He succeeded, *notwithstanding* the opposition."
- Of.** "The house *of* a friend." "To die *of* a disease."
- On.** "The picture *on* the wall." "To start *on* Tuesday."
- Over.** "The bridge *over* the river." "To rule *over* a nation."
- Past.** "They drove *past* the house."
- Respecting.** "*Respecting* his conduct, there is but one opinion."
- Save.** "All *save* him remained."
- Since.** "He has not been here *since* last Christmas."
- Till, until.** "He will remain here *till* next Christmas."
- To, unto.** "To go *to* the river." "Verily, I say *unto* you."
- Toward, towards.** "He came *towards* me."
- Through.** "To travel *through* woods and swamps."
- Throughout.** "There was sorrow *throughout* the country."
- Under.** "The earth *under* our feet." "To be *under* age."
- Underneath.** "*Underneath* this sable hearse the hero lies."

Up. "He climbed *up* the tree."

Upon. "The people stood *upon* the house-tops."

With. "Girls *with* sparkling eyes." "Enameled *with* flowers."

Within. "The war will end *within* the next six months."

Without. "A purse *without* money." "To live *without* company."

According to. "It was done *according to* law."

Contrary to. "He has acted *contrary to* orders."

As to. "*As to* your case, nothing was said."

From beyond. "They came *from beyond* Jordan."

Instead of. "Use this *instead of* that."

Out of. "Drawn *out of* a well." "A piano *out of* tune."

LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Learn the List, and show what terms are connected by each conjunction.

The teacher should explain the words, and the meaning generally.

And ; copulative ; co-ordinate. "The winds *and* the waves."

As ; causal ; subordinate. "*As* you request it, I will go."

As ; comparative ; subordinate, sometimes co-ordinate. "Cold *as* ice."

As well as ; copulative ; co-ordinate. "He went, *as well as* I."

Because ; causal ; subordinate. "Few succeed, *because* many strive."

But ; adversative ; co-ordinate. "I go, *but* I return."

Except ; restrictive ; subordinate. "He works, *except* when he is sick."

For ; causal ; subordinate, sometimes co-ordinate. "Make haste, *for*

Furthermore ; copulative ; co-ordinate. [we are waiting.]

If ; conditional ; subordinate. "*If* the advice is good, take it."

Lest ; cautionary or causal ; subordinate. "Touch it not, *lest* ye die."

Notwithstanding ; adversative and co-ordinate, or concessive and subordinate.

Notwithstanding, in the sense of "*still, however*," is co-ordinate ; in the sense of "*even if*," subordinate.

Moreover ; copulative ; co-ordinate. It sometimes begins a paragraph.

Nor ; disjunctive ; co-ordinate. "He said nothing more, *nor* did I."

Or ; disjunctive ; co-ordinate. "We must educate, *or* we must perish."

Provided ; conditional ; subordinate. "I will go, *provided* you go."

Since ; causal ; subordinate. "*Since* you have come, I will go."

Still ; adversative ; co-ordinate. "He has often failed, *still* he strives."

Than ; comparative ; subordinate. "Wisdom is better *than* money."

That ; final ; subordinate. "He studies, *that* he may learn."

That ; demonstrative ; subordinate. "We know *that* the war is a calamity."

Then ; *illative* ; *co-ordinate*. "The cotton is yours ? *then* defend it."

Though, although, sometimes **what though** ; *concessive* ; *subordinate*.

"*Though* he owns but little, he owes nothing."

Unless ; *conditional* ; *subordinate*. "Unless you study, you must fail."

Unless ; *adversative* ; *co-ordinate*. "Remain, unless you must go."

Whether ; *indeterminate* ; *subordinate*. "Ask *whether* he is at home."

Whereas ; *causal* ; *subordinate*. "Whereas it doth appear," etc.

Whereas ; *adversative* ; *co-ordinate*. "Such is party-spirit ; *whereas* patriotism seeks only the good of the country."

Yet ; *adversative* ; *co-ordinate*. "All dread death, yet few are pious."

The principal co-ordinate conjunctions are *and*, *or*, *nor*, and *but*.

The principal subordinate conjunctions are *that*, *than*, *as*, *if*, and *because*.

The left or first column of meanings will serve for *parsing* ; and the right or second, for *analysis*.

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS *connect the parts of* COMPOUND *phrases or sentences* ; SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS connect the parts of COMPLEX *phrases or sentences*.

Two clauses, connected by a co-ordinate conjunction, make a *compound sentence* ; and two clauses, connected by a subordinate conjunction, make a *complex sentence*.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS OR CONNECTIVES.

Both — and. "It is *both* mine and yours."

Either — or. "It is *either* mine or yours."

Neither — nor. "It is *neither* mine nor yours."

Whether — or. "I know not *whether* it is mine or yours."

Though, although — yet, nevertheless. "*Though* deep, yet clear."

If — then. "*If* you have no confidence, *then* do not venture."

As — as ; equality. "Time is *as* precious *as* gold."

As — so ; equality. "*As* the one dies, *so* dies the other."

So — as ; consequence. "It is *so* plain *as* to require no explanation."

So — that ; consequence. "The road was *so* muddy *that* we returned."

Not only — but also. "He is *not only* bold, *but* he is *also* cautious."

Other, else, and comparatives — than. "No *other than* he."

183. A Corresponding Conjunction, or Correlative Connective, is one of a separated pair that connect the same parts.

LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

1. Of Earnestness in Address.—O!
2. Of Surprise, Wonder, or Horror.—Hah! what! h'm! heigh hey-day! la! whew! zounds! ah! oh! hoity-toity!
3. Of Sorrow or Pity.—Oh! alas! ah! alack!
4. Of Joy, Exultation, or Approbation.—Aha! ah! oh! hey huzzah! hurrah! bravo!
5. Of Contempt or Aversion.—Pshaw! pish! tut! fie! poh!
6. Of Attention or Calling.—Ho! lo! heigh-ho! hollo! 'st!
7. Of Silence.—Hush! hist! whist! 'st! aw! mum!
8. Of Interrogating.—Eh? hem, or h'm?
9. Of Detection.—Aha! oho! ay-ay!
10. Of Laughter.—Ha, ha, ha! he, he, he!
11. Of Saluting or Parting.—Welcome! hail! adieu!

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

- | | | | |
|--|----------|---|-----|
| 1. How many methods, in language, of distinguishing the sexes? | 140 | with the title <i>Mr.</i> , <i>Miss</i> , or <i>Dr.</i> , made plural? | 149 |
| 2. What is the first method? Always give examples. | | 13. What is said of the plural of foreign nouns? | 150 |
| 3. What is the second method? | | 14. What is said of the ending <i>a</i> ? | |
| 4. What is the third method? | | 15. Of the ending <i>us</i> ? | |
| 5. How are most nouns made plural? | 141 | 16. Of the ending <i>um</i> or <i>on</i> ? | |
| 6. To what nouns is the ending <i>es</i> added? | 142, 143 | 17. Of the ending <i>is</i> ? | |
| 7. How are proper nouns made plural? | 144 | 18. Of the ending <i>x</i> or <i>ex</i> ? | |
| 8. Give the plural of <i>beef</i> , <i>leaf</i> , <i>half</i> , <i>loaf</i> , <i>knife</i> , and <i>wolf</i> ; and tell us what is said of such words. | 145 | 19. What is the plural of <i>bandit</i> , <i>beau</i> , <i>cherub</i> , <i>seraph</i> , <i>genus</i> , and <i>Mr.</i> ? | |
| 9. Give the plural of <i>man</i> , <i>child</i> , <i>tooth</i> , and <i>mouse</i> ; and tell us what is said of such words. | 146 | 20. How are letters and figures made plural? | 151 |
| 10. Give the plurals of <i>brother</i> , <i>die</i> , <i>fish</i> , <i>genius</i> , and <i>penny</i> ; and tell us what is said of such words. | 147 | 21. What nouns are generally used in the singular number only? | 152 |
| 11. How are most compound words made plural? | 148 | 22. When may such words be used in the plural number? | 153 |
| 12. How is a name that begins | | 23. Mention some nouns that are generally used in the plural number only. | 154 |
| | | 24. Some that have the same form for either number. | 155 |
| | | 25. When is a collective noun singular? | 156 |

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|--|-----|--|----------|
| 26. When is a collective noun plural? | 157 | 43. When are the endings <i>er</i> and <i>est</i> preferred? . | 173, 174 |
| 27. What is said of the nominative and the objective case of nouns? | 158 | 44. When are <i>more</i> and <i>most</i> preferred? | 175 |
| 28. Of pronouns? | 159 | 45. Compare the adjectives <i>good</i> , <i>bad</i> , <i>much</i> , <i>many</i> , <i>near</i> , <i>late</i> , and <i>old</i> ; and tell us what is said of such words. . | 176 |
| 29. How is the possessive case of nouns formed, in the singular number? . . | 160 | 46. Compare the adverbs <i>well</i> , <i>badly</i> , <i>much</i> , <i>little</i> , <i>far</i> , and <i>forth</i> . . | |
| 30. How, in the plural? . . | 161 | 47. When can adjectives or adverbs not be compared? . | 177 |
| 31. Mention the leading personal pronouns. | 162 | 48. How are adverbs compared? . | 178 |
| 32. The relative pronouns. . | 163 | 49. How are the parts of compound words changed in form? | 179 |
| 33. The interrogative pronouns. . | 164 | 50. Into what classes are adverbs divided? | 180 |
| 34. Into what classes are the adjective pronouns divided? | 165 | 51. Mention three of each class. . | |
| 35. What is declension? . . | 166 | 52. Mention some adverbial phrases. | 182 |
| 36. Decline <i>boy</i> , <i>man</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>thou</i> , <i>you</i> , <i>he</i> , <i>she</i> , <i>it</i> , <i>who</i> , and <i>one</i> | | 53. What is a conjunctive adverb? | 181 |
| 37. Give the principal parts of the verbs <i>fly</i> , <i>flee</i> , <i>flow</i> , <i>lie</i> , <i>lay</i> , <i>set</i> , and <i>sit</i> . . . | | 54. What is a corresponding conjunction? | 183 |
| 38. Mention the auxiliary verbs. . | 167 | 55. Repeat the list of prepositions. | |
| 39. What is conjugation? . . | 168 | 56. Repeat the list of conjunctions. | |
| 40. What is synopsis? . . . | 169 | 57. Mention some interjections. . | |
| 41. How are words compared, to express degrees below the positive? | 172 | | |
| 42. How are words compared, to express degrees above the positive? | 173 | | |





PART III.

CONSTRUCTIONS.

184. A Rule, in grammar, is generally a brief statement that teaches the proper use of words.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I. — NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the subject of a finite verb, must be in the nominative case.

John studies. I study. They study.

EXPLANATION. — Since John does the studying, there is plainly a relation between *John* and *studies*. Observe also that we can not use objective forms, and say, "*Me study*", "*Them study*"; but we must use the nominatives *I* and *they*. Hence the Rule.

Correct.

Albert is writing.
A cloud is passing over us.
The *dog* caught the robber.
Misers hoard money.
Money is hoarded by misers.
Care and *grief* injure health.
I am writing. *He* is writing.
She sings and plays well.
We have less than *you* [have].
Be [*thou*] careful.
Come *ye* in peace here?
The *man* | *who* is industrious,
can earn what *he* needs.
Man, the subject of *can earn*; *who*, of *is*.

Albert is a noun, and the subject of the verb *is writing*. It is therefore in the nominative case, according to Rule I. (Repeat it.)

Incorrect.

William and *me** have learned the lesson.
Him and *me* are in the same class.
Were you and *her* at the party?
You did fully as well as *me*.
He is taller than *me*, but I am as tall as *her*.
Whom, would you suppose, stands head in our class?
Who made the fire? — *John* and *me* [made it].
Who swept the room? — *Us* girls.

* INCORRECT: The pronoun *me* is in part the subject of the verb *have learned*. It should therefore be *I*, in the nominative case, according to Rule I. (Repeat it.)

<i>Talent</i> is full of thoughts; but <i>genius</i> , full of thought.	He writes better than <i>me</i> . We sorrow not as <i>them</i> that
Art <i>thou</i> that traitor angel?	have no hope.
art <i>thou</i> he <i>who</i> first broke peace in Heaven?	Some discussion arose in re- gard to <i>whom</i> should be sent.

Surely the teacher, if at all competent, can show the pupils how to go through the exercises in a clear and sensible way; and we shall therefore not encumber the following exercises with any more formulas.

The examples on the left should be parsed at some future time. To go simply through the syntax is sufficient for the present.

RULE II. — NOMINATIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used independently or absolutely, must be in the nominative case.

Mary, your lilies are in bloom.

The *rain* having ceased, we departed.

EXPLANATION. — *Mary* is simply addressed, and something else is said; or the sentence would make sense without the word *Mary*, which is therefore said to be used *independently* of the rest of the sentence.

The noun *rain* is so used with a participle that it does not relate to any other word; and it is therefore said to be used *absolutely*, with the participle.

Correct.

Incorrect.

INDEPENDENT, BY DIRECT ADDRESS. *Me* being sick, the business was neglected.
Flora, it is nine o'clock.

INDEPENDENT, BY EXCLAMATION. *Them* refusing to comply, I withdrew.
Alas, poor *Yorick*!

INDEPENDENT, BY PLEONASM. *Him* who had led them to battle being killed, they retreated.
The Pilgrim *Fathers*, — where are they? And *me*, — what shall I do?

ABSOLUTE, WITH A PARTICIPLE. *Her* being the only daughter, no expense had been spared in her education.
The *house* being sold, we removed.

There is little honor in being a *politician*.
There is no doubt of its being *him*.

ABSOLUTE, WITH AN INFINITIVE. (Better: "There is no doubt that it is he.")
To become a *scholar* requires exertion.

I have no wish to be *him*.

RULE III. — POSSESSIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun that limits the meaning of another by denoting possession, must be in the possessive case.

John's horse is in *our* pasture.

EXPLANATION. — Since John owns the horse, there is plainly a relation between *John* and *horse*; and it is also evident that not any horse is meant, but only the one which belongs to John. A similar remark is applicable to *our* and *pasture*. Hence the Rule.

Correct.

I will use *John's* book, and you may use *Mary's*.

I sent him to *Smith's* [store], for *Sir Walter Scott's* works.

Whose cap is this? Is it *yours* [*your cap*]?

His misfortunes awaken *nobody's* pity, though no *one's* ability ever went farther for *others'* good.

He disobeyed his *father's* as well as his *mother's* advice.

He made no secret of *my* having written the review. — *Irving*.

Incorrect.

Do you use *Webster* or *Worcester's* Dictionary?

Brown, Smith, and Jones's wife, usually went shopping together.

We insist on *them* staying with us.

His father was opposed to *him* going to California.

A participle that follows a noun or pronoun, becomes a participial noun, when the participle is the chief word in sense.

RULE IV. — OBJECTIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb, must be in the objective case.

I shot a *deer*. We caught *them*.

EXPLANATION. — Since I shot the deer, there is a relation between my shooting and the deer, or between the words *shot* and *deer*. In the second example, there is as plainly a relation between *caught* and *them*; and notice also that the objective form, *them*, and not the nominative form, *they*, will make good sense after *caught*. Hence the Rule.

Rule IV is also applied to infinitives and participles.

Correct.

The soil produces *cotton*.
 The soil produces *cotton, rice,*
 and *sugar*.
 I saw *him*. He saw *me*.
Whom did you hit?
 (I hit) *John*.
 Having made the *law*, enforce it.
 To see green *fields* is pleasant.
 No one knows *how much the fel-*
low is in debt.

Incorrect.

Who do you want?
Who did you see?
Who shall we send?
 Let him send you and *I*.
 Let thou and *I* the battle try.
Ye only have I known.
She that is idle and mischievous,
 reprove sharply.
 Him you should punish; not *I*,
 who am innocent.

RULE V. — OBJECTIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun, used as the object of a preposition, must be in the objective case.

The money was sent by *me* to *him*.

EXPLANATION. — Sent *by* some one, sent *to* some one; hence there is evidently a relation between *by* and *me*, and between *to* and *him*. Observe also that the objective forms, *me* and *him*, and not the nominative forms, *I* and *he*, will make good sense after the prepositions. Hence the Rule.

Correct.

A tree, full of *cherries*, stood
 before the *house*.
 Come, go with *me*.
 I gave a melon for three *pears*
 and five *peaches*.
 Of *whom* did you buy it?
 (I bought it of) *James*.
 Give [to] *him* the knife.
 By *reading* in good *books*, you
 will improve.

Incorrect.

Who did you come with?
Who did you send for?
Who is that boy speaking to?
 There is some pudding left for
 you and *I*.
 This is between you and *I*.
 I do not know *who* she went
 with. *Who* is it for?
 I gave it to somebody; I have
 forgotten *who*.

RULE VI. — OBJECTIVES.

A Noun or Pronoun that limits the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, is sometimes used in the objective case without a preposition expressed.

This Rule is applicable to some nouns that show the *time, extent, direction, manner, value, or quantity*; to the indirect objects after such verbs as *give, lend, offer, present, etc.*; and to the objects which follow the words *like, near, worth, opposite, etc.* By supplying a preposition, the Rule can be dispensed with; and when a suitable preposition can be easily found, it will be generally better to supply it, and to apply Rule V.

Correct.

We sailed *north*, a hundred *miles*, the first *day*.
 The Atlantic Ocean is three thousand *miles* wide. (How wide?)
 It is a *ton* heavier. It happened five *times*. He went *home*.
 My knife is worth a *dollar*. The ice is a *foot* thick.
 Oranges grow, like *apples*, on small trees, but in warm climates.

We sailed *toward the north*, over a hundred miles of space, during the first day.
North limits sailed, by showing the direction; *miles* limits sailed, by showing the extent; and *day* limits sailed, by telling in what time.
Worth is an adjective, meaning — *valuable to the extent of*.

Incorrect.

My landlady had a daughter *of* nine years old. — *Swift*.
 Just beyond the church is a lot *of* sixty feet square.
Who do I look like? She promised him and *I* some peaches.

RULE VII. — SAME CASE.

A Noun or Pronoun used for explanation or emphasis, by being predicated of another, or put in apposition with another, must be in the same case.

Jones is a *lawyer*. The lawyer is *Jones*.

It is *Jones* the lawyer. He *himself* is *Jones* the lawyer.

EXPLANATION. — Since Jones is a lawyer, there must be a relation between the words *Jones* and *lawyer*; and since each word can be used as the nominative to *is*, both must be in the same case. Hence the Rule.

The basis of this Rule is, that the words denote the *same* person or thing.

Predicated of; asserted of, by means of an intransitive or a passive verb.

In apposition; placed by the side of, without a connecting verb.

Appositive; the noun or pronoun in apposition with another.

Predicate Nominative or Substantive; the noun or pronoun which denotes what is predicated.

Correct.

Mr. A, the *trustee*, was here.
 Mount *Holyoke* was in sight.
 Thou, *thou*, art the man.
 O Absalom, *Absalom* !
 He struts a *dandy*.
 He was made *captain*.
 They made him *captain*.
 It was *I*. Ye *stars*.
 Who is he ? (He is who ?)
 Who say ye that I am.
 Whom do you take me to be ?
 It is easy to *spend money*.
 It is plain *that he must retreat*.

Incorrect.

It is *me*. It was *them*.
 I knew it was *him*.
 I knew it to be *he*.
 I did not know it was *her*.
 I thought it was *her*.
 It was n't *me*, but *him*.
 It could not have been *us*.
 Is it *me* you want ?
 It was *them* that did it.
 Whom do you think it *was* ?
 Who do you take me to be ?
 Let us worship God, *he* who
 created and sustains us.

The morn is up again, the dewy *morn*,
 With breath all *incense*, and with cheek all *bloom*.

RULE VIII. — TWO CASES.

The pronoun **what**, when it comprises a simple relative and its antecedent, has a double construction in regard to case.

I remember *what* was said.

What, being here used for *thing which* or *things which*, is the object of *remember*, and also the subject of *was said*. Rule VIII is given merely as a convenience ; for this Rule can be dispensed with, by applying two other Rules.

Note I. — A Compound Relative, or a similar expression, may furnish two cases, when its form allows them.

Whoever sins, must suffer. Take *whichever* horse you like.

Whoever is used as the nominative to *sins*, and also as the nominative to *must suffer*.

Correct.

Take *what* comes.
 I can not give you *what* you ask.
Whatever comes from the heart,
 goes to the heart.

I will employ *whomsoever* you recommend.
What money he brought with him, was soon spent.

When the form of the relative does not allow the two cases required, it must take the form needed for its own clause, and an antecedent must be supplied in parsing; as, "Give it to [*any person*] *who* (*soever*) needs it." "To *whomsoever* needs it," would be incorrect.

RULE IX.—PRONOUNS.

A Pronoun must agree with its antecedent, in gender, person, and number.

Mary has lost *her* bonnet.

EXPLANATION. — *Her* must be of the same gender, person, and number as *Mary*; for if it were different in any of these respects, it is evident that it could not denote *Mary*.

When the antecedent is a noun of the third person and singular number, so that it becomes necessary to choose either a masculine or a feminine pronoun, the masculine is preferred.

To ascertain what makes a singular or a plural antecedent, see what is said under Verbs, Rule XI.

Correct.

The boy and *his* mother.
 The girl and *her* father.
 The tree and *its* fruit.
 The children and *their* books.
 The people and *their* rulers.
 The mob and *its* leader.
 They *who* came first.
 Pupils, obey *your* teacher.
 John and James know *their* lessons.
 Neither John nor James knows *his* lesson.
 Every heart best knows *its* own sorrows.
 You are very sick, and I am sorry for *it*.
 Behold the Morn in amber clouds arise;
 See, with *her* rosy hands *she* paints the skies.
 Wave *your* tops, ye pines.

Incorrect.

Every person has *their* faults.
 Nobody will ever entrust *themselves* to that boat again.
 She took out the ashes, and gave *it* to a servant.
 If you have any victuals left, we will help you eat *it*.
 Now, if any person ever pretends to have seen a ghost, let my little readers tell *them* the story of the pillow and the lame goose.
 When a bird is caught in a trap, *they* of course try to get out.
 One or the other of us must relinquish *their* claim.
 Coffee and sugar are brought from the West Indies; and large quantities of *it* are consumed annually.

RULE X. — ARTICLES, ADJECTIVES, AND PARTICIPLES.

An Article, an Adjective, or a Participle, belongs to the noun or pronoun to which it relates.

The girl brought a large rose just refreshed by a shower.

EXPLANATION. — *The* what? *a* what? *What kind* of rose? Observe that both *large* and *refreshed* describe the rose.

Articles.	Adjectives.	Participles.
<i>A</i> lily.	<i>These</i> apples.	Leaves <i>falling</i> gently.
<i>The</i> garden.	<i>Two</i> apples.	Gates <i>wrenched</i> asunder.
<i>An</i> hour.	<i>Large</i> red apples.	<i>Having dined</i> , I returned.
<i>The</i> guests.	He is <i>studious</i> .	<i>Being seen</i> , he ran.
<i>An</i> eagle's nest.	<i>Cedar</i> groves.	She went away <i>singing</i> .
<i>The</i> people's rights.	<i>Glittering</i> waterfalls.	There we lay <i>concealed</i> .

Note II. — An Adjective that implies number, must agree in this respect with the substantive to which it relates.

This kind of melons. *A wall two feet* thick.

EXPLANATION. — Observe that *this* and *kind* are both singular, and therefore they agree in number. A similar remark is applicable to *two* and *feet*.

For the sake of greater definiteness, this Note, which is applicable to the adjectives *this*, *these*, *that*, *those*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc., may be used in parsing; though the Rule can also be used in place of it, and it will be generally better to use the Rule.

Substantive is a general word, denoting either a noun or a pronoun.

Correct.

Ten *feet* long.
 Nine *cords* of wood.
 Three *rods* in width.
 The first or second *page*.
 The first and the second *page*.
 The first and second *pages*.
 We have been intimate friends
 these ten *years*.

Incorrect.

You have been playing *this* two hours.
 How do you like *these* kind of chairs?
 I never could endure *those* kind of people.
These sort of things are very provoking.
 He bought four *cord* of wood, and three *ton* of hay.
 The inlet was two *mile* wide.
 Learn the sixth and seventh *page*, and review the fourth and the fifth *pages*.

It is, however, proper to say,
 "A *ten-foot* pole," "A *five-cent* savings-bank," etc.
 ("A *ten-feet* pole," "A *five-cents* savings-bank," are improper.)

Since *a* or *an* means one, it should not be used in direct connection with a word that is plural in idea. Therefore we should rather say, *a pair of tongs, a pair of snuffers, a flight of winding stairs*, than, *a tongs, a snuffers, a winding stairs*.

Note III.—An Adjective or a Participle is sometimes used absolutely after a participle or an infinitive.

The way to be *happy* is to be *good*. The dread of being *poor*.
To appear *discouraged* is the way to invite an attack.

Observe that the adjectives *happy, good, poor*, and the participle *discouraged*, are not used with the names of the persons described; and they are therefore said to be used absolutely.

RULE XI. — FINITE VERBS.

A Finite Verb must agree with its subject, in person and number.

John studies. I study. I am. He is. They are.

EXPLANATION.—Since John does the studying, there is obviously a relation between *John* and *studies*. Observe also that we can not say, when speaking properly, “*John study*”, “*I is*”, “*He am*”; but we must use with each subject that form of the verb which will agree with it in person and number according to the Conjugation, pp. 75 to 87.

Correct.

The rose *is blooming*.
The roses *are blooming*.
You *were* not at home.
Thou *sighest* in vain.
Believe (thou) and *obey*.
He that *seeketh, findeth*.
There *were* two or three of us.
To write ten lines a day *is* sufficient.
That liars are not believed even when they tell the truth, *is* a just part of their punishment.

Incorrect.

I always *learns* my lessons before I *goes* to school.
Circumstances *alters* cases.
The molasses *are* excellent.
Five dimes *is* half a dollar.
Six *is* too many to ride in the canoe at once.
There *is* five cords of wood in the pile.
Six months' interest *are* due.
Was you there?
I called at your house, but you *was* not at home.

The agreement of the verb with its subject, and the agreement of the pronoun with its antecedent, make the chief syntax of the English language; let us therefore consider, —

1. The person of the subject or antecedent.
2. The number of the subject or antecedent.
3. The terms relating to the subject or antecedent, which do not affect the form of the verb or pronoun.

1. PERSON.

185. When two or more nominatives or antecedents, differing in person, are taken together, or are connected merely by *and*, the verb or pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third.

“*You and I*,” or “*You, he, and I*” = *We*; “*You and he*” = *You*.
 “*James and I have recited | our lessons.*”

186. When two or more nominatives, differing in person, are taken separately, or connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb prefers the nominative next to it.

Ex.—“*You or I am to blame*”; better, *Either you are to blame, or I am.* “*Thou or thy friends are to make reparation.*”

Incorrect.

He or you *is* the cause of my trouble.

Is I or he to blame for it? Neither he nor you *was* mentioned.

On that occasion, neither he nor I *were* consulted.

2. SINGULAR SUBJECT OR ANTECEDENT.

187. The following subjects or antecedents are *singular*: —

1. A singular noun or pronoun denoting a single object.

Ex. — The fire *burns*. John *is* at home.

2. A singular collective noun denoting a group of objects as one thing.

Ex. — His family *is* large, yet he supports *it*.

Incorrect.

There *go* a gang of deer.

Generation after generation *pass* away.

The army of Xerxes *were* conquered by the Greeks.

A committee *were* appointed to examine the accounts.

The Society *hold* their meetings on Fridays.

The fleet *were* seen sailing up the channel.

3. A plural noun denoting but one thing.

Ex. — The "Pleasures of Hope" *was* written by Campbell.

Young's "Night Thoughts" *is* a gloomy but instructive poem.

4. Two or more nouns joined by *and*, yet denoting, but one person or thing.

Ex. — Yonder *lives* a great scholar and statesman.

Why *is* dust and ashes [man] proud?

Goldsmith's "Edwin and Angelina" *is* a beautiful poem.

To turn and flee *was* now impossible. — *Irving*.

5. A singular substantive, or a phrase of two or more, modified by *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *many* a, or *no*.

Correct.

Every house *was* decorated.

Every tree, herb, and flower, *shows* the wisdom of God.

No rank, no fortune, no honor, *makes* the guilty happy. — *Blair*.

Full many a flower *is* born to blush unseen. — *Gray*.

Incorrect.

Everybody *are* disposed to help him.

Every person *are* hereby notified to pay *their* taxes.

Each strove to recover *their* position.

Neither one *are* suitable to my purpose.

Everybody *is* fighting, and have been for several days. — *Newspaper*.

Every tall tree and every steeple *were* blown down.
 Every leaf, every twig, and every drop of water, *teem* with life.
 Every skiff and canoe *were* loaded to the water's edge.
 No wife, no mother, and no child, *were* there to comfort him.
 Many a man looks back on the days of *their* youth with melancholy regret.
 Every twenty-four hours *affords* to us day and night.

6. Two or more singular substantives joined by *or* or *nor*.

Correct.

Tuesday, Wednesday, or Thursday, *was* the appointed day.
 To forsake a friend, or to divulge his secrets, *is* mean.
 Neither precept nor discipline *is* so forcible as example.
 Nor eye nor listening ear an object *finds*. — *Young*.

Incorrect.

Either Thomas or George *have* to stay at home.
 Neither Holmes, Forbes, nor Jenkins, *were* classmates of mine.
 Riding on horseback, or rowing a skiff, *are* good exercise.
 The violin or the banjo, played by some merry old negro, *beguile* the summer evenings.

3. PLURAL SUBJECT OR ANTECEDENT.

188. The following subjects or antecedents are *plural*: —

1. A plural substantive that denotes two or more objects, or that is plural in sense.

Ex. — The fires *burn*. The ashes *have* lost | *their* heat.

Incorrect.

Has the horses *been* fed? There's two or three of us.
 The victuals *was* cold. There *is* no tidings.
 There *seems* to be no others included.
 On each side of the river *was* ridges of hills.
 Here *is* five or six barrels that you may take.

What *signifies* fair words without good deeds?

There *was* no memoranda *kept* of the sales.

The book is one of the best [books] that ever *was written*.

Such accommodations *as was* necessary, *was provided*.

He is one of the preachers *that belongs* to the church militant, and *takes* considerable interest in politics.

2. A collective noun that is singular in form, but plural in idea.

Ex. — The council *were divided* in *their* opinions.

Such a noun is plural in idea when we must think of the persons or things separately, in order to make the assertion.

Ex. — The majority are handsome, and of large stature.

That is, the individual islanders (Feejees were meant) of this majority are so.

Incorrect.

The committee *disagrees*.

The multitude eagerly *pursues* pleasure.

In France, the peasantry *goes* barefoot, while the middle sort *makes* use of wooden shoes.

The public *is* respectfully *invited*.

The higher class *looks* with scorn on those below them.

All the world *is* spectators of your conduct.

At least half the members *was* present.

Five pair *was sold*. Fifty head *was* drowned.

Pair and *head*, when thus plural in sense without being plural in form, resemble collective nouns.

3. Two or more substantives connected by *and*, and denoting different persons or things.

Correct.

John, James, and William, [= the boys,] *are studying*.

You, he, and I, [= we,] *are allowed* to go.

To love our enemies, to mind our own business, and to relieve the distressed, *are* things oftener praised than practised.

Incorrect.

Mary and her cousin *was* at our house last week.
 Time and tide *waits* for no man.
 Hill and dale *doth boast* Thy blessing.
 Where *is* your slate and pencil ?
Is your father and mother at home ?
 In all her movements there *is* grace and dignity.
 Four and two *is* six, and one [and six] *is* seven.
 There *seems* to be war and disturbance in Kansas.
 This and that house *belongs* to him.
 Enough money and time *has* already *been expended*.

4. A singular and a plural substantive, or two or more plurals, joined by *or* or *nor*.

Ex. — The king or his advisers *were* opposed to that course ; while neither the prince nor his friends *were* prepared to defend it. — *Hume*.

The plural nominative should generally be placed next to the verb.

Incorrect.

For the sake of brevity and force, one or more words *is* sometimes omitted. One or more persons *was* concerned.
 Neither beauty, wealth, nor talents, *was* injurious to his modesty.

4. TERMS THAT DO NOT AFFECT THE FORM OF THE VERB OR PRONOUN.

189. The following terms do not affect the form of the verb or pronoun : —

1. An adjunct to the nominative.

Ex. — The long *row* of elms *was* magnificent.

Incorrect.

Every one of the witnesses *testify* to the same thing.
 Each one of the vowels *represent* several sounds.
 Neither of us *have* a dollar left.

Either one of the schools *are* good enough.

A variety of pleasing objects *charm* the eye.

Which one of these soldiers *were* wounded?

The sum of twenty thousand dollars *have been expended*.

A hundred thousand dollars of revenue *is* now in the treasury.

The mother, with her daughter, *have spent* the summer here.

The derivation of these words *are* uncertain.

Nothing but expense and trouble *have grown* out of the business.

Each one of us *have* as much as *we* can do.

2. A term in apposition, or a predicate-nomina-
tive.

Correct.

Love, and love only, *is* the loan for love.

The *Bible*, or Holy Scriptures, *is* the best book.

I was eyes to the blind, and feet *was I* to the lame. — *Bible*.

His *meat* [food] *was* locusts and wild honey. — *Ib*.

The *people are* a many-headed beast. — *Pope*.

Incorrect.

Lafayette Place, or Gardens, *occupy* several acres.

Two parallel lines *is* the sign of equality.

The sign of equality *are* [*consists of*] two parallel lines.

The crown of virtue *are* peace and honor.

My cause and theirs *is* one. — *Dryden*.

The few dollars which he owes me, *is* a matter of small consequence.

Virtue and mutual confidence *is* the soul of friendship.

Twelve single things, viewed as a whole, *is called* a dozen.

Said the burning Candle, "My use and beauty *is* my death."

3. A term set off parenthetically or emphatically, and terms excepted, or depending on a verb understood.

Correct.

This *man* (and, indeed, all such men) *deserves* death. [age.

Our *statesmen*, especially John Adams, *have reached* a good old

The *carriage*, as well as the horses, *was* much injured.

The subjects belong to different propositions, and the verb agrees with the first subject.

Pleasure, and not books, *is* his delight.
Books, and not pleasure, *are* his delight.
 Since *none* but thou *can end* it. — *Milton*.
 Not only rage, but even *murmurs cease*. — *Pope*, abridged.
 What black despair, what *horror fills* his heart. — *Thomson*.
 Honor and virtue, nay, even *interest demands* a different course.
 For *thine is* the kingdom, and [*thine is*] the power, and the glory.

Incorrect.

Our taxes, especially the military tax, *is* enormous.
 The house, as well as the furniture, *were* destroyed.
 He, not less than you, *deserve* punishment.
 He, and not I, *am* responsible. I, and not he, *is* responsible.
 It is not her beauty, but her talents, *that attracts* attention.

RULE XII. — INFINITIVES.

An Infinitive depends on the word which it limits, or which leads to its use.

He *is anxious to return*.
 The Passions oft, *to hear* her shell,
 Thronged around her magic cell.

The definitions are so arranged as *to be* easily learned.

EXPLANATION. — *To return* limits *anxious*, by showing as to what he is anxious; and it therefore depends on *anxious*, according to Rule XII. *To hear* limits *thronged*, by showing for what purpose; and it therefore depends on *thronged*, according to Rule XII. *To be learned* depends on *as*, according to the last clause of Rule XII.

The infinitive depends on the word *with which it makes syntax*.

Note IV. — An Infinitive, a Participle, a Phrase, or a Clause, may be used as a noun in any case except the possessive.

To be without wants is the prerogative of God only.

To be, with the remaining words of the phrase of which it is the chief word, is the subject of the verb *is*.

His being bloody was the cause of suspicion.

It is best not to have any thing to do with him.

He knows *when to purchase*. He knows *what to say*.

He knows *when it is best not to purchase*.

"*Very good*," replied the pendulum.

Next parse the separate words of the phrase as usual.

This Note can be dispensed with by applying the Rule of Syntax which is applicable to the case in which the word, phrase, or clause is used. When an infinitive or a participle assumes case, it may be treated as a noun would be in the same situation. But sometimes the infinitive or participle is so intimately blended with other words, that it seems absolutely necessary to take the whole phrase as one thing; and in such cases the Note is preferable to any of the Rules.

Note v. — A Participle or an Infinitive is sometimes used independently, in the sense of a clause.

Generally *speaking*, young men are best for business.

We, generally speaking, would say, that young men are best for business.

But to proceed: it has been frequently remarked, that, etc.

But it is time to proceed, and therefore let us renew the subject thus:
Supplied words often vary the meaning, or make the sentence clumsy. Hence the Note.

RULE XIII. — ADVERBS.

An Adverb modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

"The horse runs *rapidly*." Runs *how*?

"The horse runs *very* rapidly." *How* rapidly.

"The horse is *very* strong." *How* strong.

Note VI. — A Conjunctive Adverb joins a modifying clause or phrase to some other word.

"You speak of it *as* you understand it." Speak *how*?

"The sun had risen *when* we reached the mountain."

"Now, *while* it is cool, let us work."

"On it was a direction *where* to send it." — *Swift*.

Note VII. — Sometimes an Adverb modifies a phrase or a clause; and some adverbs of addition, exclusion, emphasis, or quantity, may relate to any part of a sentence.

Dryden wrote *merely* for the people. — *Johnson*.

Not wrote *merely*; but *merely* | for the people.

Just | as I approached the jungle, the panther made a spring.

Even | *as a miser counts his gold,*
Those hours the ancient time-piece told. — *Longfellow.*

Even emphasizes the adverbial clause after it; and this clause modifies *told*.

A phrase or a clause sometimes has the meaning of an adjective or an adverb; and therefore an adverb can modify such a phrase or clause.

Not *even* | *a philosopher* can endure the toothache patiently.

Even relates to the subject of the sentence; and *not* relates to the subject as modified by *even*. Some of these adverbs are a species of conjunctive adverbs, that relate to some part of a sentence, and at the same time refer it back to a similar part expressed or implied.

Note VIII. — An Adverb is sometimes used independently.

Ex. — “Yes, my lord.” “No; I was not there.”

RULE XIV. — PREPOSITIONS.

A Preposition shows the relation of its object to some other word on which the adjunct depends.

A man *OF* wisdom spoke. The man spoke *OF* wisdom.

For explanations and illustrations, see p. 94.

RULE XV. — CONJUNCTIONS.

A Conjunction connects words, phrases, clauses, or sentences.

Weeds *and* briars grow in the field, *because* it is not cultivated.

Here *and* joins *briars* to *weeds*; and *because* connects two clauses.

When a conjunction connects words or phrases, they are generally in the same construction; as, “*Mary, Jane, and Alice, | went into the garden, and brought some large, ripe, and juicy peaches.*” Here the connected nouns are nominatives to the same verbs, the connected verbs or phrases have the same subject, and the connected adjectives qualify the same noun.

Note IX. — *As* or *than* sometimes joins a word or phrase to a clause, in stead of connecting two clauses.

But ever to do ill our sole delight,
As being the contrary to his high will. — *Milton.*

Words can sometimes be supplied after the infinitive, so as to make two clauses; as, "Be so kind as to write to me" [*would be kind*]. But, in most instances, words can not be thus supplied without varying or destroying the sense.

RULE XVI. — INTERJECTIONS.

An Interjection has no grammatical connection with other words.

Alas! no hope remains. No hope remains.

EXPLANATION. — Observe that the sentence can make sense without the interjection *alas*; and *alas* is therefore used independently, or has no grammatical connection with the other words.

PARSING.

General Formula. — The part of speech, and why; the kind, and why; the properties, and why; the relation to other words, and according to what Rule.

ARTICLES.

Formula. — An *article*, and why; $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{definite}, \\ \textit{indefinite}, \end{array} \right\}$ and why; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule.

ADJECTIVES.

Formula. — An *adjective*, and why; $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{descriptive}, \\ \textit{definitive}, \end{array} \right\}$ and why; whether *compared* or not, and how; the *degree*, and why; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule.

NOUNS.

Formula. — A *noun*, and why; $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{proper}, \\ \textit{common}, \end{array} \right\}$ and why; *collective*, and why; *gender*, and why; *person*, and why; *number*, and why; declension; *case*, and Rule.

PRONOUNS.

Formula. — A *pronoun*, and why; $\left. \begin{array}{l} \textit{personal}, \\ \textit{relative}, \\ \textit{interrogative}, \\ \textit{adjective}, \end{array} \right\}$ and why; antecedent, and Rule IX; or, *gender*, and why; *person*, and why; *number*, and why; declension; *case*, and Rule.

VERBS.

Finite Verbs.

Formula. — A *verb*, and why; *principal parts*; *regular*, } and why; *transitive*, with *voice*, } and why; the *mood*, and why; the *tense*, and why, — with *form*, and why; conjugation; the *person* and *number*, to agree with its subject —, according to Rule XI.

Mention *Form* only when it is progressive, or emphatic, or passive without being passive in sense.

Infinitives and Participles.

Formula. — An *infinitive*, } and why; its parts in each voice; *A participle*, } and why; *present*, } and why; *transitive*, with *voice*, } and why; *perfect*, } and why; *intransitive* or *neuter*, } and why; { on what it depends; Rule XII. { to what it belongs; Rule X.

1. An *infinitive*, used as a *noun*; its nature as an infinitive; its nature as a noun; Rule for nouns.

2. A *participial noun*; its nature as a participle; its nature as a noun; Rule for nouns.

ADVERBS.

Formula. — An *adverb*, and why; of *what kind*; if it can be compared, say so, and how; to what it belongs, and according to what Rule or Note.

PREPOSITIONS.

Formula. — A *preposition*, and why; between what it shows the relation; Rule.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Formula. — A *conjunction*, and why; its peculiar nature; what it connects.

INTERJECTIONS.

Formula. — An *interjection*, and why; of *what kind*; Rule.

ORDER OF PARSING, CONDENSED.

Article; definition; kind; disposal; Rule.

Adjective; definition; kind; sub-class; comparison; degree; disposal; Rule.

Noun; definition; kind; gender; person; number; declension; case; disposal; Rule.

Pronoun; definition; kind; sub-class; antecedent and Rule IX; or, gender; person; number; | declension; case; disposal; Rule.

Finite Verb; definition; principal parts; kind in regard to form; kind in regard to objects,—with voice; mood; tense; form; synopsis; conjugation; person and number; disposal; Rule.

Infinitive; definition; its forms; kind in regard to time; kind in regard to objects,—with voice; disposal; Rule.

Infinitive, used as a *Noun*; its nature as an infinitive; its nature as a noun; disposal; Rule for nouns.

Participle; definition; its forms; kind in regard to time; kind in regard to objects,—with voice; disposal; Rule.

Participial Noun; its nature as a participle; its nature as a noun; disposal; Rule for nouns.

Participial Adjective; its nature as a participle; its nature as an adjective; disposal; Rule for adjectives.

Adverb; definition; kind; comparison; degree; disposal; Rule.

Conjunctive Adverb; as an adverb, it modifies the verb —, in its own clause, by expressing —, (Rule XIII); as a conjunctive adverb, it refers its clause to —, according to Note VI.

Preposition; definition; relation; Rule.

Conjunction; definition; kind; connection; Rule.

Interjection; definition; kind; Rule.

A simple and comprehensive view of parsing may be presented to the pupil, in the following manner : —

— is a	Proper Common Collective Participial	} Noun ; of the	Masculine Feminine Common Neuter	} Gender ;	First Second Third	} Per-
son ;	Singular Plural		Nominative Possessive Objective		Case ; Disposal, and Rule	

It may be well for the teacher to apply the foregoing idea to every part of speech ; and then to write the formulas upon the blackboard, so that they may be daily before the eyes of his pupils.

When a word belongs to some remote sub-class of a part of speech, it will be easiest for the pupil, in parsing, to begin with the largest class, and to descend until he gets to the class in which the word is found. Thus, *five* is an *adjective* ; *definitive*, it specifies or limits ; *numeral*, it expresses number ; and *cardinal*, it tells how many.

EXERCISES.

A large tree spread its shade over us, and gently rustled in the breeze.

Analysis.

This is a simple declarative sentence, with a compound predicate. The phrase, *a large tree*, is the subject ; *tree* is the subject-nominative, which is modified by the adjective *large* and the article *a*. The phrase, *spread its shade over us, and rustled in the breeze*, is the predicate ; *spread* and *rustled* are the predicate-verbs, which are connected by *and*. *Spread* is modified by the adjunct *over us*, and the object *shade* which is itself modified by *its* ; and *rustled* is modified by the adverb *gently*, and by the adjunct *in the breeze*.

When the subject or the predicate consists of two or more words, the teacher may allow the pupil to call it the *entire subject*, the *entire predicate* ; simply to give a little more fullness or force to the expression.

The foregoing specimen of analysis is given rather in advance of the principles which we lay down under this head ; but the teacher can easily explain what is meant ; and it is probably best that the pupil's curiosity should be excited in regard to this subject, before he is required to study the principles as they are printed in the book. Beyond *subject* and *predicate*, the elements of Analysis can not be comprehended to any considerable extent, without a thorough knowledge of the parts of speech. Hence our arrangement of topics.

Parsing.

A is an *article*, it is placed before a noun to limit its meaning; *indefinite*, it shows that no particular large tree is meant; and it belongs to *tree*, according to Rule X: *An article belongs to the noun to which it relates.* (It is not necessary, in parsing, to repeat more of a Rule than the example requires.)

ABRIDGED. — *A* is the indefinite article; and it belongs to *tree*, etc.

Large is an adjective, — a word used to qualify or limit the meaning of a noun or pronoun; *descriptive*, it describes the tree; *compared* — positive *large*, comparative *larger*, superlative *largest*; in the *positive degree*, it expresses simply the quality; and it belongs to *tree*, according to Rule X. (Repeat it.)

ABRIDGED. — *Large* is a descriptive adjective in the positive degree (pos. *large*, comp. *larger*, superl. *largest*); and it belongs to *tree*, according to Rule X.

Tree is a *noun*, it is a name; *common*, it is a name common to all objects of the same kind; *neuter gender*, it denotes neither a male nor a female; *third person*, it represents an object as spoken of; *singular number*, it means but one; and in the *nominative case* — it is the subject of the verbs *spread* and *rustled* — according to Rule I.

ABRIDGED. — *Tree* is a common noun; of the neuter gender, third person, singular number; and in the nominative case — to the verbs *spread* and *rustled* — according to Rule I.

Spread is a *verb*, it expresses the act of a subject; *principal parts* — present *spread*, past *spread*, present participle *spreading*, perfect participle *spread*; *irregular*, it does not take the ending *ed*; *transitive*, it has an object (*shade*), — and in the *active voice*, because it represents its subject as acting; *indicative mood*, it expresses an actual occurrence or fact; *past tense*, it denotes simply a past act; (singular number — First person, I *spread*; 2d p. You *spread*; 3d p. It, or the tree, *spread*;) and in the *third person, singular number*, to agree with its subject *tree*, according to Rule XI.

ABRIDGED. — *Spread* is an irreg. tr. v., in the active voice; prin. parts, *spread, spread, spreading, spread*; indic. m., past t.; and in the 3d p., s. n., to agree with its subject *tree*, etc.

Its is a *pronoun*, — a word used in stead of a noun; *personal*, it is one of those pronouns which distinguish the grammatical persons; of the neuter gender, third person, and singular number; to agree with its antecedent *tree*, according to Rule IX; (repeat it;) nom. *it*, poss. *its*; and in the *possessive case* — it limits the meaning of *shade* — according to Rule III.

ABRIDGED. — *Its* is a personal pronoun ; of the neuter gender, third person, and singular number, to agree with its antecedent *tree*, etc.

Over is a *preposition*,—a word used to show the relation between a following noun or pronoun and some other word ; it here shows the relation between *spread* and *us*, or of *us* to *spread*, according to Rule XIV.

ABRIDGED. — *Over* is a preposition, showing the relation, etc.

And is a *conjunction*,—a word used to connect words, phrases, or propositions ; *copulative*, it implies addition ; *co-ordinate*, it is used to connect parts of equal rank ; and it here joins the phrase *rustled in the breeze* to the phrase *spread its shade over us*, according to Rule XV : *A conjunction connects words or phrases in the same construction.*

ABRIDGED. — *And* is a copulative co-ordinate conjunction ; connecting two phrases, according to Rule XV.

Gently is an *adverb*,—a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb ; it is an adverb of *manner* ; and it modifies the verb *rustled*, according to Rule XIII.

Since adverbs are but seldom compared, it is hardly necessary to compare an adverb in parsing, except when it happens to be in the comparative or the superlative degree.

ABRIDGED. — *Gently* is an adverb of manner ; can be compared ; and modifies the verb *rustled*, according to Rule XIII.

The remaining words of this sentence are parsed so nearly in the same way as the foregoing words, that it is not necessary to show how they should be parsed ; and the formulas, with the teacher's assistance, will enable the pupil to parse the following phrases and sentences.

Articles.

The man.*	The men.	A rose.
The horse.	The horses.	An island.
The child.	The children.	A university.
A neighbor's farm.	The boy's book.	
An Indian's hatchet.	The boys' books.	

Adjectives.

A ripe melon.	Purling streams.
The fairest lady.	Yonder house. No house.
The red-winged blackbird.	This tree. These trees.
A good boy's mother.	Those two long benches.

* *The man* is a phrase. The principal word is *man*, which is modified by the article *the*.

Nouns.

Fulton invented steamboats.
 James the coachman is here.
 George is a gentleman and scholar.
 Johnson's cattle have eaten our grass.
 Alice, bring your slate and arithmetic.
 My mother being sick, I remained at home.

Pronouns.

We caught him. He came with me.
 Albert hurt himself. John, you are wanted.
 Your horse trots well, but mine paces.
Say, Mine is used for my and horse. (Now parse each word.)
 Read thy doom in the flowers, which fade and die.
 She who studies her glass, neglects her heart.
 It was I that went. I am His who created me.
 James reads what pleases him. What is he?
 Who was Blennerhasset? Who is my neighbor?
 Which is it? Who can tell what he may be?
 The old bird feeds her young ones.
 Others may be wiser, but none are more amiable.

Finite Verbs.

Birds fly. Bees collect honey. It was I.
 She broke the pitcher. The pitcher was broken.
 They named her Mary. She was named Mary.
 Fierce was the conflict. I do object.
 Tall pines are rustling. Thou art the man.
 Be diligent. Were he rich, he would be lazy.
After a verb in the imperative mood, thou or you is commonly understood.
 The apples might have been eaten.
 The lady may have been handsome.
 Who are they? Every evil will be removed.
 Martha and Mary have recited their lessons.

A dutiful son is the delight ⁷ of his parents.
Monday or Tuesday was the appointed day.

Infinitives and Participles.

We were compelled to return to our camp.
We had a great curiosity to see the battle-field.
I am glad to see you. Let no one pass.
She is wiser than to believe his flattery.
The Indians fled, leaving their mules tied to the bushes.
The machinery, being oiled, runs well.
Not to love is unnatural. I insist on writing the letter.
I forgot to mention it. It is easy to find ⁷ fault.
Of making many books, there is no end.

To love is an infinitive, used as a noun. As an *infinitive*, it is present, in the active voice, and modified adverbially. As a *noun*, it is of the neuter gender, third person, singular number; and with the rest of the phrase of which it is the chief word, it is used as the subject of the verb *is*, according to Note JV.

Writing is a participial noun. As a *participle*, it is present, transitive, and in the active voice. As a *noun*, it is of the neuter gender, third person, singular number; and in the objective case — being the object of the preposition *on* — according to Rule V.

Adverbs.

The trees are waving beautifully.
Blue and lofty mountains successively appeared.
Write more carefully. The field is not entirely planted.
Here will I remain till you return.

Prepositions.

The water flows over the dam.
I found a dollar in the road.
In spring the leaves come forth.
We should not live beyond our means.
From virtue to vice the progress is gradual.

Conjunctions.

We should improve our hearts and minds.
Death saw the floweret to the desert given,
Plucked it from earth, and planted it in heaven.

Eagles generally go alone, but little birds go in flocks.
 If it rain to-morrow, we shall have to remain at home.
 Though he is poor, yet he is honest.

Interjections.

Take, O boatman, thrice thy fee.
 Ah! few shall part where many meet.

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

190. Analysis, in grammar, is the resolving of a sentence into its principal and subordinate parts.

The most important principal parts are *subjects* and *predicates*.

191. Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its parts of speech, and mentioning their properties and syntax.*

THE THREE RELATIONS.

Almost the whole of what is usually called Analysis in grammar, is based simply on three common syntax relations, generalized and extended. These are the predicate relation, the adjective relation, and the adverbial relation.

Predicate Relation.

Trees | grow.

Young trees | grow rapidly.

The young trees along the river | have grown rapidly this year.

Observe that the relation between *trees* and *grow*, in the first example, is the common syntax relation between nominative and verb. In analysis, we simply *extend this relation over the entire phrase, so as to take in the whole sense*. Hence, while *trees* remains the nominative in parsing, in analysis we make *trees*, *young trees*, and *the young trees along the river*, respectively the subjects. So, while *grow* remains the verb in parsing, in analysis we make *grow*, *grow rapidly*, *have grown rapidly this year*, respectively the predicates.

* The teacher should explain this word thoroughly.

Adjective Relation.

Black HORSES.
These HORSES.
The HORSES.
John's HORSES.
 HORSES, *the property of John*.
 HORSES *owned by John*.
 HORSES *to be sold*.
 HORSES *of strength and speed*.
 HORSES *of which he boasts*.
 HORSES *that have been rode*.

Adverbial Relation.

They BUILD *wonderfully*.
 They BUILD *ships*.
 They BUILD *now*.
 They BUILD *everywhere*.
 They BUILD *concealed*.
 They BUILD *to be remembered*.
 They BUILD *in great splendor*.
 They BUILD *while labor is cheap*.
 They BUILD, *that they may have* homes.

Observe that not merely the adjectives *black* and *these* tell what or which horses are meant; but that also the article *the*, the possessive *John's*, the appositive, the participle, the infinitive, the adjunct, and the relative clause, — indeed, all the different words, phrases, and clauses, joined to *horses*, — tell what or which horses are meant. The adjective sense is thus extended over kindred meanings and over phrases and clauses.

Observe that the adverb *wonderfully*, and the object *ship*, which limit *build*, though in very different ways, still both show what kind of building is meant; namely, *wonderful building* and *ship-building*. Observe also that all the different words, phrases, and clauses, joined to *build*, show *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, or *as to what* the building is done, — that is, they are used in the sense of adverbs; and the adverbial sense is thus extended over kindred meanings and over phrases and clauses.

THE ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

192. The Elements of sentences are words, phrases, and clauses.

193. All sentences can be resolved into propositions or clauses.

Ex. — The leaves hung silent in the woods, | the lake shone like a mirror, | and the air was soft and balmy.

The foregoing sentence consists of three clauses.

Ex. —

Roses | fade.

Roses and lilies | bloom and fade.

The subject-nominative is sometimes called the *grammatical subject* and the predicate-verb the *grammatical predicate*; the entire subject is sometimes called the *logical subject*, and the entire predicate the *logical predicate*. The predicate-verb *be*, or any other neuter verb, is sometimes called the *copula*; and the adjective, noun, or kindred expression, which follows it, is sometimes called the *attribute*.

The subject-nominative and the predicate-verb are called the *principal parts* of the sentence; and the words or phrases which belong to them, are called *modifiers*.

The subject, or the entire subject, is the subject-nominative with all its modifiers.

The predicate, or the entire predicate, is the predicate-verb with all its modifiers.

205. A Modifier is a dependent word, phrase, or clause, added to another word or expression, to limit or vary the meaning.

Ex. — *The PATHS of glory* lead but to the grave.

The and *of glory* are modifiers; because they cease to make sense when the word *paths* is removed, and they show what paths are meant.

A MODIFIER generally *specifies, limits, explains, or describes*.

206. Modifiers that belong to nouns or pronouns, are called *adjective modifiers*.

207. Modifiers that belong to verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, are called *adverbial modifiers*.

ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS.

208. A NOUN or PRONOUN may be modified, —

- | | | |
|--------------|---|--|
| By
Words, | { | 1. By an Article. "A SERVANT brought the HORSE." |
| | | 2. By an Adjective. "A beautiful rose." "Money enough." |
| | | 3. By a Possessive. "John's horse." "My slate." |
| | | 4. By an Appositive. "John the saddler." |
| | | 5. By a Participle. "Fields ploughed." "Birds singing." |
| | | 6. By an Infinitive. "Horses to be fed." "A house to let." |

- Phrases,** {
1. By an Adjunct. "A bunch of *fresh flowers*."
 2. By an Appositive Phrase. "It is easy to do so."
 3. By a Participial Phrase. "Barns, *filled with grain*."
 4. By an Infinitive Phrase. "Ties *never to be broken*."
 5. By an Adjective Phrase. "Days, *short and very cold*."

- Clauses.** {
1. By a Relative Clause. "The winds *which bring perfume*."
 2. By an Appositive Clause. "It is true *that I went*."
 3. By a Conjunctive Clause. "Hopes *that he will come*."
 4. By an Adverbial Clause. "The place *where he fell*."

PREDICATE OR ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS.

209. A VERB may be modified, —

- By Words,** {
1. By an Object. "Men build *houses*."
 2. By an Adverb. "The horse ran *fast*."
 3. By a Predicate Substantive. "He became a *farmer*."
 4. By a Predicate Adjective. "Milk turned *sour*."
 5. By a Participle. "The ball went *whizzing*."
 6. By an Infinitive. "I have come to *be instructed*."

- Phrases,** {
1. By an Adjunct. "Apples grow *on trees*."
 2. By an Objective Phrase. "Order *him to be brought*."
 3. By an Explanatory Phrase. "To be good is to *be happy*."
 4. By an Adverbial Phrase. "I will go *by and by*."
 5. By a Participial Phrase. "He fell *grasping his sword*."
 6. By an Infinitive Phrase. "He fell to *rise no more*."
 7. By an Absolute Phrase. "*He being sick*, I returned."

- Clauses.** {
1. By an Objective Clause. "I believe *that he is honest*."
 2. By an Adverbial Clause. "Study *while you are young*."
 3. By an Explanatory Clause. "My wish is, *that you remain*."
 4. By a Conjunctive Clause. "I am convinced *that you are right*."

A modified verb may be a *finite verb*, an *infinitive*, or a *participle*.

210. The predicate-verb *be*, when it is followed by an adjective, a noun, or a kindred expression, is simply *combined* with it, rather than modified by it; and the latter term can generally be called an *attribute* of the subject.

The latter term is sometimes simply an *explanatory* or *identifying* term.

211. An adjective or an adverb may have the same kinds of modifiers as a verb, except not those modifiers which are substantive or adjective.

212. A word may have several modifiers at the same time; and a word that modifies another, may itself be modified.

Modify we use as the most comprehensive term; but *limit*, *describe*, or *explain*, can also be used when more expressive.

From what has been said, we may infer that sentences are composed of the six following elements:—

Two Principal Parts; Subject-Nominatives and Predicate-Verbs.

Two Modifiers; Adjective and Adverbial.

A Connecting Element; Conjunctions, Prepositions, Relative Pronouns, and Conjunctive Adverbs.

An Independent Element; Independent Nominatives, Interjections, and some Adverbs.

SENTENCES.

213. A clause or sentence is, —

1. *Declarative*, when it expresses a declaration.

Ex. — John rides that wild horse.

2. *Interrogative*, when it asks a question.

Ex. — Does John ride that wild horse?

3. *Imper'ative*, when it expresses command, entreaty, or permission.

Ex. — John, ride that wild horse.

4. *Exclam'atory*, when it expresses an exclamation.

Ex. — Does John ride that wild horse!

214. Sentences are divided into three classes ; *simple*, *complex*, and *compound*.

1. SIMPLE SENTENCES.

215. A Simple Sentence is a sentence that has but one proposition.

The subject of a simple sentence can have no clause.

The predicate of a simple sentence can have no clause.

The core of syntax, in all sentences, is *predication*.

Soldiers fight.

ANALYSIS. — This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *soldiers*, and the predicate is *fight*.

Analyze and parse the following sentences : —

Dogs bark. Time flies. Wolves howl. Sin degrades.
Bees were humming. Mary was chosen. We shall return.

That fierce dog bit the stranger.

This is a simple declarative sentence. The subject is *that fierce dog* ; the subject-nominative is *dog*, which is modified by the adjectives *that* and *fierce*. The predicate is *bit the stranger* ; the predicate-verb is *bit*, which is modified by its object *stranger*, and this is modified by the article *the*.

They moved slowly. Large elms adorn New Haven.

She brought a small basket of delicious fruit.

The mountain is covered with evergreens.

We visited Rome, the capital of Italy.

Our neighbor's bees have left their hive.

The summer breeze parts the deep mazes of the forest shade.

The old oak is loaded with a flock of singing blackbirds.

Lead is heavy.

This is a simple declarative sentence. *Lead* is the subject; and *is heavy* is the predicate. *Is* is the predicate-verb; and it is combined with *heavy*, an attribute of the subject.

Flies are insects.

This is a simple declarative sentence. *Flies* is the subject; and *are insects* is the predicate. *Are* is the predicate-verb; and it is combined with *insects*, an attribute of the subject.

Mary's eyes are blue. Rogers the poet was a banker.

Lake Erie is a beautiful sheet of water. Was it you?

Deep rivers flow in silent majesty. Were you there?

A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

There is a mourner o'er the humblest grave.

Patience and perseverance can remove mountains. [gleam.

The dipping paddle echoes far, and flashes in the moonlight

2. COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a relative pronoun, is *complex*.

Ex. — The flowers *which* bloom early, die early.

2. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a conjunctive adverb, is *complex*.

Ex. — *When* the sun rises, the dew glistens like gems.

3. A sentence that consists of two clauses connected by a subordinate conjunction, is *complex*.

Ex. — I am convinced *that* you are right. — See p. 97.

4. A sentence that consists of two clauses, of which one is used in the sense of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb, is *complex*.

(This class includes all the preceding ones.)

"*That he is guilty*, is not evident." Subject-nominative.

"It is not evident *that he is guilty*." Appositive.

"I doubt *whether he is guilty*." Objective.

"The impression is, *that he is not guilty*." Predicate-nominative.

"Religion is a support *that will not fail*." Adjective.

"Make hay *while the sun shines*." Adverbial.

216. A sentence that consists of two clauses, of which one is dependent on the other, is *complex*.

This class includes all the preceding classes.

Mary has brought a rose, which grew in the garden.

This is a complex declarative sentence. The principal clause is, *Mary has brought a rose*. (Analyze this clause.) The dependent clause is, *which grew in the garden*; and it modifies *rose*, to which it is connected by the relative *which*. (Now analyze the clause.)

The evil which men do, lives after them.

When the sun rises, the birds sing.

All nations believe that the soul is immortal.

It is mysterious how an acorn becomes an oak.

In Part First, pp. 35-55, the teacher can find an abundance of sentences, of all kinds, and well classified. He should also write on the blackboard the formula for Analysis, given on p. 262 of Kerl's Common-School Grammar.

3. COMPOUND SENTENCES.

1. A sentence that consists of two clauses, connected by a co-ordinate conjunction, is *compound*.

Ex. — The way was long, and the wind was cold.

2. A sentence, consisting of two clauses that have no connective, is generally *compound*.

Ex. — Some ran into the woods; others plunged into the river.

217. A sentence that consists of two or more independent clauses, is *compound*.

This last definition includes the preceding ones.

218. A compound sentence may consist, —

1. Of two simple sentences.

Ex. — Life is short, | and art is long.

2. Of a simple sentence and a complex or compound.

Ex. — I ventured ; | but I lost what I *had* invested.
I came, I saw ; but I did not conquer.

3. Of two complex or compound sentences.

Ex. — He lived as mothers wish their sons to live ;
He died as fathers wish their sons to die.
Times change, and men change ;
But right prevails, and truth abides.

The world is made for happiness ; but many people make themselves miserable.

This is a compound declarative sentence, consisting of two clauses. *The world is made for happiness*, is the first independent clause. (Analyze this clause, and the remaining one, just as you would analyze a simple sentence.)

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day ;
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea ;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear ;
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air.

Man is the rugged lofty pine,
That frowns o'er many a wave-beat shore ;
Woman's the slender, graceful vine
Whose clasping tendrils round it twine,
And deck its rough bark sweetly o'er.

Life is short, and art is long ; therefore it is almost impossible to reach perfection in any thing. — *Gæthe*.

Complex and compound sentences can be analyzed easily and thoroughly by analyzing their clauses one after another just as if all of them were simple sentences. The pupil may also state, as he takes up each clause, whether it is independent or dependent ; and, if dependent, what word it modifies, and by what word it is joined to the same. This is probably the best mode of analysis for most pupils, especially young ones and beginners.

FALSE SYNTAX, CONTINUED.

All the remaining errors, in the use of language, can be reduced to the four following heads :—

1. Too Many Words.
2. Too Few Words.
3. Improper Word or Expression.
4. Improper Arrangement of Words.

1. TOO MANY WORDS.

General Rule I.—No needless word should be used.

This *here* is my seat. That *there* is your place.

That *there* apple is better than this *here* one.

I have *got* to go. You have *got* to stay.

She is a poor widow *woman*. Where is William *at* ?

Their situation can hardly be conceived *of*.

Our debts and our sins are generally greater than we think *for*.

I was not able *for* to do it. Use some *other* similar word.

My father presented me *with* a new knife.

Women are governed by fancy instead of *by* reason.

He died in less than two hours *time*.

It is *equally* as good as the other. Mine is *equally* as good as yours.

You *had* n't ought to do it. He *had* n't ought to go.

Had I *have* been there, I would have gone with them.

His *two* sisters were both *of them* well educated.

The neck connects the head and trunk *together*.

They relate to each other *mutually*.

He went away about the *latter* end of the week.

The passion of envy and *the passion of* avarice are base.

Give *that* what you can spare, to the poor.

I have no doubt *but* that he will come.

He then told us *how* that he had always been a Union man.

From thence we sailed to Liverpool, by steamer.

Whenever he sees me, he *always* inquires after my health.

Whatever she found, she took *it* with her.

If I mistake not, I think I have seen you before.

This barbarous custom, *and* which prevailed everywhere, the missionaries have abolished.

The relative is itself a connecting word, and therefore does not need *and*.

Her tears *dropped and* fell upon the face of her dying *and expiring* babe. A little *flowing* rivulet. Mr. Henry Felton, Esq.

UNDER PARAGRAPH 124. We made her *to* believe it.

If I bid you *to* study, dare you *to* be idle?

To go I could not. You need not *to* have staid.

• Special Rules.

1. A pronoun should not be added to its antecedent, when the antecedent alone would express the meaning better.

John *he* went, and Mary *she* went; but the rest *they* all staid at home. Henry Barton *his* book. (Rule III.) Mary Johnson *her* book. These lots, if they had been sold sooner, *they* would have brought a better price.

2. When two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, only one of them should be used to express denial.

I will never do so no more. We did n't find nobody at home. I don't know nothing about your affairs; and I don't want to know. I never said nothing about it to nobody.

Death never spared no one. She will never grow no taller.

I sha'n't go, I don't think. (Change the sentence.)

Neither you nor nobody else can walk ten miles in one hour.

3. Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided.

The office could not have been given to a *more* worthier man.

A farmer's life is the *most* happiest.

She is the *most* loveliest one of the sisters.

Nothing can be *more* worse — *worser*.

The lesser quantity I remove to the other side.

The ending *er*, of the comparative degree, is equivalent to the word *more*.

After the *most* strictest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee.

Those were the least happiest years of my life.

4. The article is commonly omitted, —

1. When a word is used merely as a title.
2. When a word is spoken of merely as a word.
3. When we refer to the kind generally, or to only a part indefinitely.

The highest officer of a State is styled *a* Governor.

The original signification of knave was *a* boy.

Reason was given to *a* man to control his passions.

The cypress is *a* curious species of *a* tree.

I have had *a* dull *sort of* *a* headache all day.

The whites of America are *the* descendants of *the* Europeans.

5. When connected descriptive words refer to the same person or thing, the article can generally be used only before the first of the words.

A white and *a* black calf is one calf with two colors.

There is another and *a* better world.

My friend was married to *a* sensible and *an* amiable woman.

She is not so good *a* cook as *a* washerwoman.

Fire is *a* better servant than *a* master.

I am *a* better arithmetician than *a* grammarian.

I would rather be *a* poor Solomon than *a* rich ignoramus.

Everett, the patriot, *the* statesman, and *the* orator, should be invited.

The earth is *a* sphere, *a* globe, or *a* ball.

The Old and *the* New Testaments make the Bible.

Better: "The Old Testament and the New make the Bible;" or, "The Old and the New Testament make the Bible."

The first and *the* second pages were our first lesson.

6. Do not make transitive verbs intransitive, by inserting *a* needless preposition.

Pharoah and his host pursued *after* them.

We had just entered *into* the house. Follow *on after* us.

His estate will not allow *of* such extravagance.

If you can wait till to-morrow, I will consider *of* it.

Many talented men have deserted *from* the party.

2. TOO FEW WORDS.

General Rule II.—No necessary word should be omitted.

White sheep are much more common than black.

He does not know you better than John.

Lovest thou me more than these ?

He did it for your and my friend's welfare.

He had fled his native land. What prevents us going ?

The remark is worthy the fool that made it.

We ought not speak evil of others, unless it is necessary. § 124.

I have already done more than I ought to. I like [to live] up here.

Money is scarce, and times hard. (Verb wanting.)

He was a man had no influence. (Nominative wanting.)

She saw at once what was best to do. " "

Special Rules.

1. The article *the* is frequently needed to show that all of a class are meant; and when connected descriptive words refer to different persons or things, an article is generally needed before each of the words.

The Indians are descendants of the aborigines of this country.

Meh who are indolent, generally complain of hard times.

A black and white calf were the only two I saw.

The white and black inhabitants amount to several thousands.

A beautiful stream flowed between the old and new mansion.

The sick and wounded were left at this place.

2. In comparison, *other*, *else*, or a similar word, must sometimes be inserted to prevent the leading term from being compared with itself.

That tree overtops all the trees in the forest.

He thinks he knows more than anybody.

Nothing is so good for a sprain as cold water.

No magazine is so well written as the *Atlantic Monthly*.

Jacob loved Joseph more than all his children. [flood.

Noah and his family outlived all the people who lived before the

3. Parts emphatically distinguished should be expressed with equal fullness.

Neither my house nor orchard was injured. (Supply *my*.)

Both the principal and interest were paid.

Not the use, but abuse, of worldly things, is sinful.

The young, as well as old, may sicken and die.

The hum of bees, and songs of birds, fell sweetly on the ear.

I would rather hear the whippoorwill than katydid.

4. A participial noun generally requires an article before it, and *of* after it; or else the omission of both the article and the preposition.

Keeping of one day in seven is required by the Bible.

By the exercising our judgment it is improved.

This is a betraying the trust reposed in him.

A wise man will avoid the showing any excellence in trifles.

A wise man will avoid showing of any excellence in trifles.

Great benefit may be derived from reading of good books.

3. IMPROPER WORD OR EXPRESSION.

General Rule III.—In the use of words, great care should be taken to select the most appropriate.

To lay; to make lie, to place. *To lie*; to rest in a reclining position. *To set*; to place. *To sit*; to rest. *To learn*; to acquire knowledge. *To teach*; to impart knowledge. *To like*; to be pleased with, to desire moderately. *To love*; to feel affectionate or very kind towards. *To raise*; to lift.

This, the nearer; *that*, the more distant: *this*, the latter; *that*, the former: *this*, something present; *that*, something absent.

Either or *neither* should be used in speaking of two only; *any one*, *no one*, or *none*, in speaking of more. *Each other* should be used in speaking of two; *one another*, in speaking of more. *Less*, size or number; *fewer*, number only.

Into, from outside to inside; *in*, inside only; *at*, indefinitely in or about; *in*, definitely within; *between* or *betwixt*, two only; *among*, three or more; a taste *of* what is enjoyed, a taste *for* what we wish to enjoy; disappointed *of* what is not obtained, disappointed *in* what

fails to answer our expectations after it is obtained; die *of* disease, *by* an instrument; compare *with*, for ascertaining merits, — *to*, for illustration; attended *by* persons, *with* consequences.

Abhorrence *of*; accuse *of*; adapted *to*; agreeable *to*; aspire *to*; capacity *for*; correspond *with*, *to*; confide *in*; dependent *on*; independent *of*; derogation *from*; differ, different, *from*; difficulty *in*; diminution *of*; dislike *to*; eager *in*; enamored *of*; followed *by*; founded *on*, sometimes *in*; influence *over*; incorporate *into*, *with*, sometimes *in*; made *of*; meddle *with*; need *of*; occasion *for*; omitted *from*; prejudice *against*; profit *by*; quarrel *with*; resemblance *to*; rely *on*; reconcile *with*; swerve *from*.

He *laid* abed till breakfast. *Lay* down and rest.
 We *had laid* on the ground all night. — *Newspaper*.
 After *laying* awhile in this position, he *raised* up.
 We *were* all *setting* round the fire. We *set* up late.
 Won't you *set* down a little *bit*? I *ain't going to go*.
 I *love* bread and butter. Can you *learn* me to write?
 The business will suit any one who *enjoys* bad health.
 I did n't *go* to do it. *Carry* the horse to water.
 I have a *heap* to say. He is a *mighty* insignificant fellow.
 I *expect* it rained yesterday. The garment was neatly *sown*.
 He *threwed* the ball. I *seed* him. He *knowed* better.
 Very many rivers *empty* into the Mississippi. — *flow* —
 Four *goes* in thirty, seven times, and two *over*.

CORRECTED: Four *is contained* seven times in thirty, with two *remainder*.

It was not taken notice of. — *was not noticed*.
 It *was* not *made use of* for this purpose.
 She said our noise and romping *must be put a stop to*.
 Such a poem is worth *being committed* to memory. (*committing*) •
 Whatever is worth *being done*, is worth *being done* well.
 Dram-shops *are now being closed* on Sundays. (*Omit being*.)
 The report *is being circulated* everywhere.

Never use a compound participle as a part of a finite verb, unless it is absolutely necessary to use it.

Wheat is now *being sold* for a dollar a bushel. — *is selling* —
 The books *are being printed*. The new church *is being built*.
 I have *done* written the letter. I have *done* done it. — *already* —
 She is *administrator*. He *married* a Jew. She is a *good songster*.
She is a good singer; for songster is now generally applied to birds.

The two Smiths are related to *one another*.

Pupils should be polite to *each other*. Take *either of the five*.

None of the two pleases me. I have caught *less* fish than you.

Neither of these three hats is large enough for my head.

Any one of the two roads will take you to town.

You may take *e'er* a one or *ne'er* a one, just as you please.

That very point which we are now discussing, was lately decided in the supreme court.

There is a right road, and there is a wrong road, before every person: *this* leads to happiness; and *that*, to misery.

Be that as it *will*, I cannot give my consent.

As it will implies certainty; *as it may* implies uncertainty.

Then *says* I to him, "You *had* ought to have staid." — *said* —

A wicked man is not happy, be he *never* so prosperous.

Neither our position, *or* the plan of attack, was known. Page 97.

You look as *though* you have been sick. — *if* —

There is no doubt *but what* he is mistaken. — *that* —

This is none other *but* the gate of Paradise.

Other, else, or the comparative degree, must generally be followed by than. — See *Correlatives*, p. 97.

O fairest flower, no sooner blown *but* blasted! — *Milton*.

It is nothing else *but* the people's caprice. — *Swift*.

Nothing else but this will do. It was no one else but him.

It would be still better to omit *else* from the two foregoing sentences.

He is not so tired *but what* he can whistle. Page 97.

I will not go *without* you go too. — *unless* —

She is *such* a good woman. — *so good a woman*.

Such expresses quality; and *so*, degree.

I have seldom seen *such* a tall man.

The letter was not *as* well written as I wished it to be.

I will see *if* it rains or *no*. — *whether* * * * or *not*.

Whether, and not *if*, should begin an indeterminate clause that is used as a noun.

Go, and see *if* father has come. See *if* that will do.

Such cloaks were in fashion five years *since*. Do *like* I did. (*as*)

Ago, from present time back; *since*, from some past time forward. (Dictionaries do not make this distinction; but it is nevertheless well founded.)

I was there about five weeks *since*. I have not been there —.

It is useless *trying*. No one likes *being* in debt.

In using verbs, nouns, participles are generally preferred after prepositions; and infinitives, in other situations, or in connection with verbs.

Studying reading lessons is as important as *studying* any other
A diphthong is *where* two vowels are united. [lessons.]

A diphthong is *when* two vowels are united.

Say, "A diphthong is the *union of*," etc.; for a diphthong is neither place nor time.

Fusion is *while* a solid is converted into a liquid by heat.

He drew up a petition *where* he represented his grievances.

Say, — "a petition *in which*," etc.; for *where* might seem to be a conjunctive adverb relating to *drew*.

Do not let the dog come *in* the house. He came *of* a sudden.

He died *with* a fever. He died *for* thirst.

This is a very different dinner *to* what we had yesterday.

I have little influence *with* him. I live *to* home.

I left my book *to* home. His case has no resemblance *with* mine.

Please walk *in* the *setting-room*. His prejudice *to* our cause.

The soil is adapted *for* wheat and corn.

He was accused *with* having acted unfairly.

The sultry evening was followed *with* a storm.

I have been *at* France. I board *in* the new hotel.

The property was divided *between* five children.

I was disappointed *in* the pleasure of meeting you.

Special Rules.

1. The pronoun *them* should not be used for the adjective *those*.

Them boys are very lazy. Give me *them* books.

What do you ask for *them* peaches? Take away *them* things.

Let some of *them* boys sit on some of *them* other benches.

Them are good mackerel. *Them* are my sentiments.

2. Adverbs should be used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs; and adjectives, to qualify nouns or pronouns.

She sews *good* and *neat*. Speak *slow* and *distinct*.

The work is *near* done. I am only *tolerable* well.

I never studied *no* grammar, but I can talk just as *good* as *them*
that talk *grammatical*. I am *exceeding* busy. [way.]

We ought to value our privileges *higher*. I can write *easiest* thi

Apples are more *plenty* than peaches. — N. Webster.

We landed *safely* after all our misfortunes.
Things look much more *favorably* this morning.
She looks *beautifully* in her new silk dress.

3. The comparative degree is used when but two objects are compared; and the superlative, when three or more are compared.

The *eldest* of her two sons is going to school.
John is the *oldest*, but James is the *largest*, of the two boys.
Which is the *largest* number, — the minuend or the subtrahend?
Which do you like *best*, — tea or coffee?
Choose the *least* of two evils. This is *the best* of any other one.
China has *the greatest* population of any other country on earth.

4. The leading term of a comparison should not be compared with itself, nor included in that to which it does not belong.

Youth is the most important period of any in life.
These people seemed to us the most ignorant of any we had seen.
China has the greatest population of any country on earth.
That boy is the brightest of all his classmates.
That is a better-furnished room than any in the house.
That is the best-furnished room of any in the house.

5. Avoid all improper modes of expressing comparison or the plural number.

It was the *curiousest* thing I ever saw.
I think the rose is the *beautifullest* of flowers.
He is the *awkwardest* fellow I ever saw.
He lives in the *fartherest* house on the street.
The *vallies* of California are among the most beautiful in the world.
We need two *astronomys*. All the *Lee's* were officers.
They seem to have been only the *tyro's*, or younger scholars. — *Swift*.
We saw three *deers* in the wheat-field. Those are good *mackerel*.
His *brother-in-laws* were educated at the same school.

6. Words should not be compared, or made plural, when the sense does not allow or require it.

It is the *most universal* opinion. This is *more* preferable *than that*.
Virtue confers *supremest* dignity on man, and should be his *chiefest* desire. A *more perpendicular* line. (A line *more nearly*)

It is not *so universally* known as you think. — *so generally* —

The farm is a long *ways* from market. Make a *memoranda* of it.

By the same analogy, *somewheres*, *nowheres*, etc., are frequently used improperly for *somewhere*, *nowhere*, etc.

Few persons are contented with their *lots*.

It was for our *sakes* that Jesus died upon the cross.

Let us go to the next house, and get our *suppers* there.

7. *A* should be used before consonant sounds ; and *an*, before vowel sounds.

As to vowels and consonants, see p. 152.

1. A word that begins with *u* long, *eu*, *w*, *o* as in *one*, or *y* followed by a vowel sound in the same syllable, is regarded as beginning with a consonant sound.

2. A word that begins with *u* not equivalent to *yu*, with *y* equivalent to *i*, with silent *h*, or with *h* faintly sounded because the next syllable has the chief accent, is regarded as beginning with a vowel sound.

He had *a* interest in the affair. Such *an* one said so.

It is *an* useful exercise. He is *a* honest man.

Argus is said to have had *an* hundred eyes.

There was not *an* human being on the place.

A heroic deed it was. It is *an* universal complaint.

8. *A* or *an* denotes an indefinite one of several ; *the* denotes the only one, the class, or a particular one of several.

He received only *the* fourth part of the estate.

Sometimes one article is improperly used for *another*.

An oak is a tree of great durability. That noble animal, *a* horse.

A lion is bold. *A* pink is a very common species of flower.

When *a* whole is put for *the* part, or *the* part for *a* whole, the figure is called *synecdoche* ; as, *gold* for *money*, *tea* for *supper*.

9. The object of the active verb, and not that of the preposition, should be made the subject of the passive verb.

We were shown a sweet *potato* that weighed fifteen pounds.

You were paid a high *compliment* by the young lady.

Mr. Burke was offered a very lucrative *employment*.

Washington was given the *command* of a division. (*To Washington*)

10. The possessive case of a personal pronoun should never be written with an apostrophe.

These are *our's*. That is *your's* or *their's*.

Do not say *yourn*, *hern*, *hissen*, *ourn*, or *theirn*, for *yours*, *hers*, *his*, *ours*, or *theirs*.

11. The possessive case of nouns must always be written with an apostrophe.

This is the *boys* hat. Six *months* interest is due. §§ 160, 161.

A *mothers* tenderness and a *fathers* care are *natures* gifts for *mans* advantage. *Mens* and *boys* hats.

No *ones* ability ever went farther for *others* good. Page 68.

12. A compound word or a complex term takes the possessive sign but once; generally at the end, or next to the name of what is owned.

I will meet you at Smith's, the *bookseller's*.

We used to read about *Jack's* the Giant-killer's wonderful exploits

These works are Cicero's, the most eloquent of *men's*.

13. A pair or series of nouns, implying common possession, take the possessive sign at the end, and but once.

Bond's and *Allen's* store is the next one above us.

Allen's, *Thomson's*, and *Hardcastle's* store is opposite to ours.

Peter's and *Andrew's* occupation was that of fishermen.

Bond and *Allen's* store is one store, belonging to both men.

Bond's and *Allen's* store are two stores, one belonging to each man.

That one ownership allows but one possessive sign, that each distinct ownership

requires a distinct possessive sign, and that the possessive sign should be placed as near as possible to the name of what is owned, are fundamental ideas that govern the syntax of the possessive case.

14. A pair or series of nouns, not implying common possession, or emphatically distinguished, take each the possessive sign.

John and *William's* boots fit them well.

They took the *surgeon* as well as the physician's advice.

15. To avoid harshness or inelegance, possession is sometimes better expressed by *of*; and sometimes even the possessive *s* may be omitted.

Essex's death haunted the conscience of Queen Elizabeth.

It was done for *Herodias's* sake, his brother Philip's wife.

Such were *Daniel Boone* of *Kentucky's* adventures.

He thinks his own opinions better than any *one else's* opinions —
any *one's else* opinions. — *than those of any one else.*

They cast themselves down at *Jesus's* feet.



When should *who* be used? When should *which* be used? See p. 67.

16. The relative *that* is used when the antecedent comprises both persons and things.

Also after the superlative degree, after *same*, after the interrogative *who*, and sometimes after indefinite antecedents.

§ 163. Those *which* are rich, should assist the poor and helpless.

So I gave the reins to my horse, *who* knew the way much better

It is the best *which* can be got. [than I did.]

Of all the congregations *whom* I ever saw, this was the largest.

The entire collection of persons is evidently regarded as *one thing*.

This was certainly the largest congregation *which* I ever saw.

The horse and rider *which* we saw, fell in the battle.

I am the same *as* I was. I gave all *what* I had.

Who ever became great, *who* was not ambitious?

Who of these boys has lost a knife? § 164.

With the return of spring came four martins, *who* were evidently the same *which* had been bred under those eaves the previous year.

17. It is improper to mix different kinds of pronouns in the same construction.

Ere *you* remark another's fault,
Bid *thy* own conscience look within.

You have mine, and I have *thine*.

The poor man *who* can read, and *that* has a taste for reading, can find entertainment at home.

The man *who* came with us, and *that* was dressed in black, is the preacher. Such as yours, or *which* you bought. — or *such as* —

But *what* we saw last, and *which* pleased us most, was the farce.

Policy keeps coining truth in *her* mints, — such truth as *it* can tolerate; and every die except *its* own *she* breaks, and casts away.

18. It is generally improper to use different forms of the verb in the same construction.

Does he not *behave* well, and *gets* his lessons well?

Did you not *borrow* it, and *promised* to return it soon?

To profess regard, and *acting* differently, discovers a base mind.

Spelling is easier than *to parse* or *cipher*.

To say he is relieved, is the same as *saying* he is dismissed.

19. What is forced upon the speaker, or what will simply happen to him, is better expressed by *shall* or *should* than by *will* or *would*.

Will or *would* generally represents the act or state as something desired or wished by the subject. — See also p. 75.

A foreigner, having fallen into the Thames, cried out, "I *will be* drowned; nobody *shall help* me."

We *will have* to take our coats, or we *will suffer* from cold.

Will I find you here when I return?

I was afraid I *would lose* my money.

If I wished him to come, I *would have* to write to him.

20. The past tense, and not the perfect participle, should be used to predicate, without an auxiliary, a past act or state.

The perfect participle, and not the past tense, should be used after *be*, *have*, and their variations.

I *done* so. They *done* the best they could.

He *run* all the way. I never *seen* it. He *has took* my hat.

The ground *is froze*. The horse *was stole*. My slate *is broke*.

The sun *has rose*. I *seen* him when he *done* it.

I might *have went* last Saturday, and I ought to *have went*.

He *begun* well. I *knowed* it. Mary *has tore* her book.

I knew he *had wrote* it; for it *was well writ*.

The tree *had fell*, and its branches *were broke*.

21. Avoid needless passive forms, and generally the passive form of intransitive verbs.

He *is possessed* of great talents. We *are agreed* on this point.

My friend *is arrived*. He *was* already *come*.

What *is become* of him? The tumult *is entirely ceased*.

22. The indicative mood, in conditional clauses, expresses doubt in the regular time of the tense; the subjunctive mood expresses doubt or mere supposition, and makes the tense move forward in time.

(See pp. 18, 20, and 21.)

wish I *was* at home. If it *rains* to-morrow, we shall not go.

He talked to me as if I *was* a widow.

If the book *be* in my library, I will send it.

If the book *is found* in my library, I will send it.

If the book *was* in my library, I would send it.

If the book *were* in my library, some one must have taken it.

23. The verbs of a sentence should correspond in tense, and also be consistent with the other words.

I *have bought* it, and now I have sold it. — See p. 20.

He *that was* dead, sat up, and began to speak.

I know the family more than twenty years.

Next Christmas *I shall be* at school a year.

This *was* four years ago next August.

I should be obliged to him, if he will grant my request.

24. Present facts and unchangeable truths must be expressed in the present tense.

Our teacher told us that the air *had* weight.

He told me where the church *was*.

Is not that dear? — *I should think it was*.

What did you say his name *was*?

What did you say *was* the capital of Florida?

No one suspected that he *was* a foreigner.

Plato maintained that God *was* the soul of the universe.

25. The perfect infinitive denotes something as past at the time referred to; and the present infinitive, as present or future.

I intended to have written to him.

It was your duty *to have arrested* him.

I expected to have heard from him yesterday.

I hoped to have met several of my friends there.

He is supposed *to be born* about a thousand years ago.

4. IMPROPER ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

General Rule IV. — All the parts of a sentence should be so arranged as to make it correct, clear, and elegant.

Special Rules.

1. Nouns and pronouns should be so used as not to leave the case or relation ambiguous.

The *settler* here the *savage* slew. (Which slew the other?)

And thus the *son* the fervent *sire* addressed.

If the lad should leave his father, *he* would die. (Repeat noun.)

Lysias promised his father that he would never forsake *his* friends.

The king dismissed his minister without inquiry, *who* had never before done so unjust an action.

2. Politeness usually requires that the speaker shall mention the addressed person first, and himself last.

I, Mary, and you, are to go next Sunday.

Mother said that *I and you* must stay at home.

3. Adjectives, adverbs, and adjuncts, must generally be placed as near as possible to the parts which they modify.

I bought a *new* pair of shoes. There is a *fresh* basket of eggs. I *only* recited one lesson. (Only what?) He is considered *generally* honest. At that time I wished somebody would hang me *a thousand times*. Wanted — a young man to take care of some horses, *of a religious turn of mind*. A lecture on the methods of teaching geography *at ten o'clock*. *All* that we hear, we should *not* believe. *Every* man can *not* afford to keep a coach. Please to sing the *three first* stanzas. (Apply the General Rule.) The *two first* fell covered with wounds. The *two last* classes have not recited. He is *just such another* man.

4. It is generally improper to place an adverb between *to* and the rest of the infinitive.

They were not such as *to fully* answer my purpose.

He had men enough *to strongly* garrison the fort.

We were *to cautiously and quickly* advance to the hill above.

5. When a part of a sentence refers to each of two or more other parts, it should be suitable to each.

It is *different* and superior *to the old*.

They *might*, and probably were, *good*.

He *can* and ought *to give* more attention to his business.

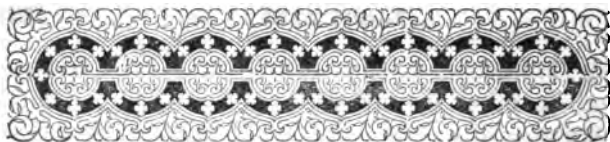
The reward *has* already or will hereafter *be given* to him.

Cedar is not *so hard*, but more durable, *than oak*.

Cedar is not so hard as oak, but more durable. Complete the construction of the first part, and leave understood that of the second.

It is *different* and much better *than the old*.

She is *fairer*, but not so amiable, *as her sister*.



APPENDIX.



LETTERS.

219. Letters make syllables, syllables make words, words make sentences, and sentences express thoughts.

220. A Letter is a character that denotes one or more of the elementary sounds of language.

Ex. — A, b, c : *age*, *at*, *art*; *bubble*; *cent*, *cart*.

221. The English language contains about forty elementary sounds, which are represented by twenty-six letters, called the *alphabet*.

The letters are generally divided into the following classes : —

Letters.	{	Vowels : <i>a</i> , <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>o</i> , <i>u</i> , <i>w=u</i> , and <i>y=i</i> . Sometimes combined into, —
		DIPHTHONGS ; <i>as</i> , <i>ai</i> , <i>au</i> , <i>ay</i> , <i>ee</i> , <i>ei</i> , <i>eu</i> , <i>oi</i> , <i>oo</i> , <i>ou</i> .
		TRIPHTHONGS ; <i>as</i> , <i>eau</i> , <i>ieu</i> , <i>iew</i> , <i>uoy</i> .
	{	Consonants.
		MUTES : <i>b</i> , <i>p</i> ; <i>d</i> , <i>t</i> ; <i>k</i> , <i>q</i> , <i>c</i> hard, and <i>g</i> hard.
		SEMI VOWELS : <i>f</i> , <i>h</i> , <i>j</i> , <i>l</i> , <i>m</i> , <i>n</i> , <i>r</i> , <i>s</i> , <i>v</i> , <i>x</i> , <i>z</i> , <i>c</i> soft, <i>g</i> soft, and <i>w</i> and <i>y</i> beginning a vowel sound.
		Liquids : <i>l</i> , <i>m</i> , <i>n</i> , <i>r</i> , and probably <i>s</i> and <i>z</i> .

222. A Vowel is a letter that denotes pure tone.

223. A Consonant is a letter that can not be fully uttered without the aid of a vowel sound.

ACCENT.

224. Accent is a stress of voice on a certain syllable of a word that has two or more syllables.

Ex. — Gar-den, a-muse'; an en-trance, to en-trance'.

"An au-gust' procession in the month of Au-gust."

225. Words of three or more syllables generally have a chief accent, called the *primary accent*; and one or more inferior accents, called the *secondary accent* or *accents*.

Ex. — Lu'-mi-ná'-ry, an'-te-ce'-dent, in-com'-pre-hen'-si-bil'-i-ty.

226. The *penult* syllable of a word is the second syllable from the end; and the *antepenult* is the third syllable from the end.

PENULT: Con'-quest, at-tor'-ney, dis-a-gree'-ment.

ANTEPENULT: Tem'-per-ate, mu-ta-bil'-i-ty, Je-ru'-sa-lem.

Most words used in our language have the chief accent either on the penult or else on the antepenult.

SYLLABLES.

227. A Syllable is a letter, or a union of letters, pronounced as one unbroken sound.

Ex. — A, on, no, stretched, a-e-ri-al, pro-fu-sion.

228. In dividing words into syllables, we should give to every syllable precisely those letters which the correct pronunciation gives to it.

Divide into syllables: —

Artery, varnish, blanket, extraordinary, monkey, often, unserviceable, grafter, felony, felonious, picture, active, waiter, Boston, Diana.

WORDS.

229. A **Word** is a syllable, or a union of syllables, used as the sign of some idea.

Ex. — Man, horse, pink, green, strikes, down, because.

230. **WORDS** are divided, according to their number of syllables, into *monosyllables*, *dissyllables*, *trisyllables*, and *polysyllables*.

A monosyllable is a word of one syllable. *Act.*

A dissyllable is a word of two syllables. *Active.*

A trisyllable is a word of three syllables. *Actively.*

A polysyllable is a word of four or more syllables. *Activity.*

231. **WORDS** are divided, according to their formation, into *primitive*, *derivative*, and *compound*.

A primitive word is not formed from another word. *Breeze.*

A derivative word is formed from another word. *Breezy.*

A compound word is composed of two or more words. *Sea-Breeze.*

232. **WORDS** are divided, according to their use, into nine classes, called *parts of speech*. — See p. 1.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

233. **Spelling** is the art of expressing words by their right letters, properly arranged. This art must be learned chiefly from spelling-books, dictionaries, and observation in reading.

Rule I. — Doubling.

Words of one syllable, ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel; and words of more syllables, ending in the same way, with the accent

fixed on the last syllable, — double the consonant before a vowel in the derivative word.

Ex. — Sad, *sadder*, *saddest*; rebel, *rebelled*, *rebellion*; rob, *robber*; win, *winning*; fop, *foppish*; drum, *drummer*; up, *upper*; admit, *admittance*; quiz, *quizzed*.

U, after *q*, is a consonant, equivalent to the consonant *w*.

In other cases, no doubling takes place.

Ex. — Seal, *sealed*; gild, *gilded*; hard, *harder*; infer, (*inferred*), *inference*; bigot, *bigoted*; tax, *taxed*. *X* final = two consonants, *ks* or *gz*; therefore never doubled.

There is a difference between *robed* and *robbed*, *planing* and *planning*, *hater* and *hatter*.

Good writers sometimes double *l*, contrary to the Rule above.

Ex. — “Traveller” — *Prescott*, *Bryant*; “carolled” — *Irving*.

Rule II. — Final Y.

Final *Y*, preceded by a consonant and followed by any letter except *i*, is changed into *i* in the derivative word.

Ex. — Fly, *flies*; glory, *glories*, *glorify*, *glorified*, *glorifying*, *glorification*; try, *trial*; pretty, *prettier*, *prettiest*; merry, *merrily*, *merriment*; pity, *pitiable*; ivy, *ivied*.

Exceptions: Most derivatives of *sly*, *dry*, and *shy*; as, *dryly*.

Final *Y*, preceded by a vowel, or followed by *i*, remains unchanged in the derivative word.

Ex. — Chimney, *chimneys*; gay, *gayer*, *gayest*, *gayety*; cry, *crying*, *crier*; destroy, *destroyer*; annoy, *annoyance*; joy, *joyful*.

Exceptions: Pay, *paid*; said, *laid*, *daily*; *staid* (remained) *stayed* (checked).

Rule III. — Final E.

Final *E*, when silent, is *rejected* before a vowel in the derivative word. But it is *retained* when needed

to keep *c* or *g* soft, or to preserve the identity of the word.

Ex. — Bite, *biting* ; force, *forcible* ; sale, *salable* ; rogue, *roguish*.
 Agree, *agreeable* ; peace, *peaceable* ; singe, *singeing*.
 There is a difference between *dying* and *dyeing*, *singing* and *singeing*.

Final **E** is *retained* before a *consonant* in the derivative word. Sometimes it is *rejected* when not needed.

Ex. — Base, *baseless* ; definite, *definitely* ; eye, *eyelet* ; whole, *wholesome*, but *wholly*. Due, *duly* ; true, *truly* ; awe, *awful* ; judge, *judgment*. (*D* softens the *g*, and renders the *e* unnecessary.)

Words ending with *ie* change *i* into *y*, before *i*, to prevent the doubling of *i* ; as, Die, *dying* ; tie, *tying* ; lie, *lying*.

Exercises.

RULE I.	RULE II.	RULE III.	MISCELLANEOUS.
Swimming,	Witticism,	Pining,	Scarred,
steaming,	laziness,	pinning,	scared,
thinned,	loyalty,	valuable,	gluing,
learned,	allies,	chargeable,	hoeing,
airy,	alleys,	traceable,	acknowledgment,
starry,	reliable,	sedgy,	vying,
propelled,	relying,	paroled,	truly,
benefited.	gayly.	patrolled.	fringing.

DERIVATION.

234. Derivation is the forming of words from other words.

235. The elements of words, in derivation, are *roots*, *prefixes*, and *suffixes*.

236. A **Root** is the chief part of a word, or that part which receives the prefix or the suffix.

237. A **Pre'fix** is a letter or letters joined to the beginning of a word, to modify its meaning.

238. A **Suffix** is a letter or letters joined to the end of a word, to modify its meaning.

PREFIXES.

De, down.
Re, again.
Ex, out.
Con, together.
Un, not.

ROOTS.

De - press ; to press down.
Re - build ; to build again.
Ex - pel (drive) ; to drive out.
Con - nect (join) ; to join together.
Un - sound ; not sound.

SUFFIXES.

Able, can be.
Er, person or thing.
En, to make.
Ness, state or quality.
Y, having, resembling.

ROOTS.

Read-*able* ; can be read.
 Read-*er* ; one who reads, a reading-book.
 Black-*en* ; to make black.
 Happi-*ness* ; the state of being happy.
 Ston-*y* ; having stones, hard as stone.

Sometimes a word has two or more prefixes or suffixes ; as, *re-product-ive-ness*.

239. In making words from others, the parts combined are sometimes varied, for the sake of euphony, by a change, an omission, or an insertion of some letter or letters.

The last letter of the prefix must often be the same as the first letter of the root.

Ex. — *Con*-lect, *col*-lect ; *dis*-fer, *dif*-fer ; *in*-moderate, *im*-moderate ; *con*-operate, *co*-operate ; *dis*-vulge, *di*-vulge ; *a*-archy, *an*-archy ; mucilag-*ous*, mucilag-*inous*.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

240. Small letters are preferred in all ordinary writing, except where capital letters are needed for distinction.

1. Every sentence should begin with a capital letter.

2. Every direct quotation should begin with a capital.

Ex. — Solomon says, "Pride goeth before destruction."

W. They shouted, "victory." He answered, no.

W means that the sentences are wrong, and should be corrected.

3. Every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

Ex. — "Happy the man whose early bloom
Provides for endless years to come." — *Trumbull*.

4. The words *I* and *O* should always be capitals.

Ex. — For *I* will not forsake thee, *O* friend of my youth.

W. He knew *i* was there. Such, *o* music! is thy power.

5. Every word denoting the Deity should begin with a capital.

Ex. — The Almighty; the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost.

"The hope of my spirit turns trembling to *Thee*." — *Moore*.

W. divine providence; the eternal; the omnipotent.

6. Every proper name, or each chief word of a proper name, should begin with a capital.

Ex. — Thomas, Susan, Monday, Boston, Amelia B. Welby.

W. mary, george, march, saturday, kentucky, henry l. gaylor.

7. Every title, whether used alone or in connection with a proper noun, should begin with a capital.

Ex. — *Mr.* Brown; *Judge* Holt; Alexander the *Great*.

W. From capt. Jones; lord Byron; Joseph Allen, esq.

8. Every word derived from a proper name should begin with a capital, provided it has not become a common word of the language.

Ex. — Columbia, American, Roman, Christian.

But, *damask* from *Damascus*; *daguerrotype* from *Daguerre*.

9. The name of an object fully personified should begin with a capital.

Ex. — “Close to *Ignorance* was her daughter, *Pride*.” — *Swift*.

10. The chief words of every phrase used as a heading or as a title, should begin with capitals.

Ex. — “He called his book ‘The Temple of Truth.’”

11. Any unusually important word, especially when it denotes the subject of discourse, may begin with a capital.

Ex. — “Preserve the Union and the Constitution.”

ITALIC LETTERS.

241. Italic letters, and sometimes small capitals, are used for emphasis or distinction.

“Here *I* reign king, and, to enrage thee more, *thy* king and lord.”

1. Italics are generally used to distinguish foreign words, and also common words when we speak of them merely as being words.

Ex. — “He was secretary *pro tempore*.”

“*Secretary* is a common noun.”

2. Italics are generally used to distinguish the names of boats, ships, newspapers, and magazines.

Ex. — “The *Neptune* sailed yesterday.”

“This article appeared in the *Atlantic Monthly*.”

One line is drawn under a written word, to denote *slanting* or *italic letters*; two lines are drawn under, to denote SMALL CAPITALS; and three lines, to denote CAPITALS.

PUNCTUATION.

242. Punctuation treats of the points or marks used in writing and printing.

The principal marks of this kind are the following :—

- The **Period** ; which denotes the longest pause or a full stop.
- : The **Colon** ; which denotes the next shorter pause.
- ; The **Semicolon** ; which denotes the next shorter pause.
- , The **Comma** ; which denotes the shortest pause. [question.
- ? The **Interrogation-Point** ; which is placed after every direct
- ! The **Exclamation-Point** ; which denotes great surprise, joy, or other excitement.

Hence it is generally placed after interjections or unusually earnest addresses.

- The **Dash** ; which denotes emphasis or abruptness.

- () The **Curves** ; which enclose some explanation or remark that can be omitted.

- [] The **Brackets** ; which enclose some correction or explanation that is generally inserted by another person.

- “ ” The **Quotation-Marks** ; which enclose words taken from another person. [tation.’ ”

- “ ” “Single Quotation-Marks enclose ‘a quotation within a quo-

- ’ The **Apostrophe** ; which denotes possession or omission.

- The **Hyphen** ; which joins the parts of most compound words, and is placed at the end of a line when a part of a word is carried to the next line.

- ˊ The **Acute Accent** ; which marks stress of voice.

- ˋ The **Grave Accent** ; which shows a sinking of the voice, or brings out a syllable.

- The **Macron** ; which marks a long sound, as in *live*.

- ˘ The **Breve** ; which marks a short sound, as in *live*.

- ¨ The **Diaeresis** ; which separates two vowels into two syllables.

- ^ The **Caret** ; which is used in writing, to show where words or letters are to be inserted.

- { The **Brace** ; which serves to connect parts. [ions of a book.

- § The **Section** ; which is sometimes used to mark the small divis-

- ¶ The **Paragraph** ; which shows where a new subject begins.

- *, †, ‡ The **Star, Dagger, and Double Dagger** ; which are used as marks of reference. Letters or figures are sometimes used for the same purpose.

- ***, —, or Stars, **Double Dash, or Periods** ; which denote omission or suppression.

- ☞ The **Hand** ; which directs special attention to something.

PERIOD.

243. The **Period** is put at the end of every phrase or sentence complete by itself, and not interrogative or exclamatory ; also after abbreviations.

Ex. — John W. Ringgold, Esq., addressed the assembly.

COLON.

244. The **Colon** is used, —

1. As an intermediate point between the semicolon and the period.

2. After words that promise a series or statement, or something important.

That is, after a statement that ends with *as follows, the following, thus, these*, or other words suggestive of the same meaning ; also generally after a formal address that begins a discourse or letter.

3. Before an important remark added to a sentence, especially when it sums up the sentence.

Ex. — The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth, e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour :
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

SEMICOLON.

245. The **Semicolon** is used, —

1. To separate parts that have the comma, or parts that require a point greater than the comma and less than the colon.

Ex. — Though deep, yet clear ; though gentle, yet not dull.

2. To separate the parts of a loose series.

Ex. — Every thing has its time to flourish ; every thing grows old ; every thing passes away.

COMMA.

246. The Comma is used, —

1. To separate the terms of a closely related series, or two such terms when the connective is omitted.

Ex. — Hedges, groves, orchards, and gardens, were in bloom.
It was a dark, desolate region.

2. To separate contrasted terms, and terms of which a part in one might also be referred improperly to the other.

Ex. — He is poor, but honest.

The troops landed, and killed a hundred Indians.

"The troops landed and killed a hundred Indians," has a different meaning.

3. To set off a word, phrase, or clause, that comes between other parts, and breaks their connection.

Ex. — You will then, *however*, be in no better condition.

Moral culture, *especially in youth*, is of the greatest importance.

They set out early, and, *before the dawn of day*, reached the place.

Columbus, *who was a Genoese*, discovered America.

4. To set off a modifying word or phrase that is not closely connected with what it modifies, or is removed from it by inversion.

Ex. — "In a central region, midway on the continent, though somewhat nearer the Pacific than the Atlantic ocean, at an elevation of nearly seven thousand five hundred feet, lies the remarkable valley of Mexico, encircled by a colossal rampart of the hardest rocks, and forming a circumference of about sixty-seven leagues, with a sky of the deepest blue, a serene atmosphere, and a magnificent landscape." — *Prescott*. (Lies where? What kind of valley?) Hence, also, loose appositive words or phrases are set off; as, "Such was Tecumseh, *the celebrated Indian warrior*."

5. To set off words or phrases used independently or absolutely.

Ex. — This book, *Mary*, is yours. *O, yes, sir*, I do know.
Shame being lost, all virtue is lost.

6. To separate the predicate from its subject, when the subject is very long, has a clause, or consists of punctuated parts.

Ex. — That one bad example spoils many good precepts, is true.
 Neither time nor distance, neither weal nor woe, can separate us.

7. To separate clauses that are neither very closely nor very loosely connected.

Ex. — There mountains rise, and circling oceans flow.
 If Homer was the greater genius, Virgil was the better artist.
 We next went to London, which is the largest city in the world.

DASH.

247. The Dash is used, —

1. To show omission caused by interruption.

Ex. — “HERE LIES THE GREAT” — False marble! where?

2. To show emphasis or suppressed feeling, or to show an unexpected turn in thought or style.

Ex. — The pulse fluttered — stopped — went on — throbbed — stopped again — moved — stopped.

This world, 't is true, was made for Cæsar — but for Titus too.


3. To set off a parenthesis, especially when emphatic, or when there are other points within it.

Ex. — He was dressed — and, indeed, so were they nearly all — in coarse homespun.

4. Before echoes, or where *that is* or *namely* is understood.

Ex. — They were governed by the worst passions, — malice and revenge.

The dash is also used after side-heads, and generally before authorities when in the same line with the end of the paragraph. (The teacher should explain what is meant.)

 For exercises in punctuation, let the reading-books be used. The pupil may give rules for the points which he finds; and he may also be required to capitalize and punctuate paragraphs transcribed without capitals or points.

SUMMARY.

GRAMMAR AND ITS DIVISIONS.

248. Grammar is the science which teaches how to speak and write correctly.

249. English Grammar is the science which teaches how to speak and write the English language correctly.

250. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is divided into five parts; *Pronunciation, Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.*

251. Pronunciation treats of the sounds of letters, and of the sounds and stress of syllables in uttering separate words.

252. Orthography treats of the forms of letters, and teaches how to spell words correctly.

253. Etymology treats of the derivation, classes, and properties of words.

254. Syntax treats of the relations and arrangement of words in sentences.

255. Prosody treats of figures, versification, utterance, and punctuation.

The teacher should explain the foregoing section.

The pupil who wishes to obtain a more thorough and scientific knowledge of all that is taught in this book, should now study Kérll's Common School Grammar.

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW.

1. Repeat Rule 1st; — 2d; — 3d; — 4th; — 5th; — 6th; — 7th; — 8th; — 9th; — 10th; — 11th; — 12th; — 13th; — 14th; — 15th; — 16th.
2. Repeat Note 1st; — 2d; — 3d; — 4th; — 5th; — 6th; — 7th; — 8th; — 9th.
3. Give the general formula for parsing.
4. Give the formula for parsing an article; — an adjective; — a noun; — a pronoun; — a finite verb; — an infinitive; — a participle; — an adverb; — a preposition; — a conjunction; — an interjection.
5. What is Analysis? . . . 190
6. What is Parsing? . . . 191
7. On what three chief relations of words is Analysis based?
8. What are the elements of sentences? . . . 192
9. Into what six classes can these be divided? Page 131
10. Into what can all sentences be resolved? . . . § 193
11. What is said of independent words or phrases? . . . 194
12. Of what two parts must every clause or proposition consist? . . . 195
13. What is the subject? . . . 196
14. What is the predicate? . . . 197
15. What is the subject-nominative? . . . 198
16. What is the predicate-verb? 199
17. How are subjects and predicates classified? . . . 200
18. Define these classes.
19. What is a modifier? . . . 205
20. Which modifiers are called adjective? . . . 206
21. Which modifiers are called adverbial? . . . 207
22. Tell, so far as you can, by what a noun or pronoun may be modified. . . . 208
23. By what, a verb. . . . 209
24. What is said of the predicate-verb *be*? . . . 210
25. Of modified adjectives and adverbs? . . . 211
26. Of modifiers? . . . 212
27. When is a clause or sentence declarative? — interrogative? — imperative? — exclamatory? . . . 213
28. Into what classes are sentences divided? . . . 214
29. What is a simple sentence? 215
30. What is a complex sentence? . . . 216
31. Give the preceding definitions.
32. What is a compound sentence? . . . 217
33. Give the preceding definitions.
34. Of what parts or members may compound sentences consist? . . . 218
35. Into what four great classes can all the errors in the use of language be divided?
36. What is the first General Rule?
37. What is said, in the special rules, about superfluous pronouns? — two negatives? — double comparison? — too many articles? superfluous prepositions?
38. What is the second General Rule?
39. What is said, in the special rules, about the insertion of articles? — improper comparison? — parts emphatically distinguished? — participial nouns?

40. What is the third General Rule?
41. What is said, in the special rules, of *them* used for *those*? — of adverbs and adjectives? — of two objects compared? — of the leading term, in comparison? — of compared adjectives and plural nouns, improperly expressed? — of words that should not be compared, or made plural? — of *a* and *an*? — of *a* or *an* and *the*? — of the subject of passive verbs? — of the possessive apostrophe? — of a compound word or a complex term expressed in the possessive case? — of a pair or series of nouns expressed in the possessive case? — of harsh or inelegant possessives? — of relative pronouns? — of mixing different pronouns, or different forms of the verb? — of *shall* and *will*? — of past tense and perfect participle? — of improper passive forms? — of the indicative and the subjunctive mood? — of the tenses? — of the infinitives?
42. What is the fourth General Rule?
43. What is said, in the special rules, of the position of nouns and pronouns? — of the position of adjectives, adverbs, and adjuncts? — of adverbs that modify infinitives? — of a part of a sentence that relates to each of two or more other parts?
44. What is a letter? . . . 219
45. Into what classes are the letters divided? . . .
46. What is a vowel? . . . 222
47. What is a consonant? . . . 223
48. What is accent? . . . 224
49. What is said of primary and of secondary accent? . . . 225
50. What is a syllable? . . . 227
51. How are words divided into syllables? . . . 228
52. What is a word? . . . 229
53. How are words classified according to their syllables? . . . 230
54. Define each class. . .
55. How are words classified according to their formation? 231
56. Define each class. . .
57. How are words classified according to their use? . . . 232
58. Define each class. . .
59. What is spelling? . . . 233
60. What is the first Rule?
61. What is the second Rule?
62. What is the third Rule?
63. What is derivation? . . . 234
64. What are the elements of words in derivation? . . . 235
65. What is a root? . . . 236
66. What is a prefix? . . . 237
67. What is a suffix? . . . 238
68. How are small letters used? and for what are capitals used? . . . 240
69. What is said of the first word of every sentence?
70. Of direct quotations?
71. Of lines of poetry?
72. Of *I* and *O*?
73. Of words denoting the Deity?
74. Of proper names?
75. Of titles?
76. Of words derived from proper names?
77. Of the names of personified objects?
78. Of capitalized phrases?
79. Of important words?
80. For what are Italics used?
81. What is punctuation?
82. What is said of the period? — the colon? — the semicolon? — the dash?
83. What is said of the comma in regard to series of terms? — parenthetical terms? — loose modifiers? — independent words? — subject and predicate? — clauses?
84. What is said of grammar and its divisions?

WORDS USED IN DIFFERENT WAYS.

Many words are used as different parts of speech; as, "A *black* horse;" "To *black* boots;" "*Black* is a color." The first *black* is an adjective; the second, a verb; and the third, a noun. A man who cultivates the earth, is usually called a *farmer*; but if he should engage in the business of buying and selling goods, he would become a *merchant*: even so the same word, according to its use or meaning, belongs sometimes to one part of speech, and sometimes to another.

All is used, —

As an adjective. "*All* flowers must fade."

As a noun. "Not *all* that glitters, is gold." [up.]

As a pronoun. "Wealth, pleasure, and honors, must *all* be given

As an adverb. "I am *all* alone;" i. e., wholly.

As is used, —

As an adverb. "*As* cold as ice;" degree. "Skate *as* I skate;" manner. "It fell *as* I entered;" time.

As a conjunction. "*As* [since] you have come, I will go with you."

As a pronoun. "Let such *as* hear, take heed."

Before is used, —

As an adverb. "I came *before* it rained."

As a preposition. "He stood *before* me."

So are also used *above*, *after*, *below*, *ere*, etc.

But is used, —

As a conjunction. "Sin may gratify, *but* repentance stings."

As a preposition. "Whence all *but* [except] him had fled."

As an adverb. "Words are *but* [only] leaves."

That is used, —

As an adjective. "*That* book belongs to me."

As a demonstrative pronoun. "My opinion or *that* of another."

As a conjunction. "I hope *that* you will come."

As a relative pronoun. "The same flag *that* [which] we saw before."

What is used, —

As a relative pronoun, with two cases. "Take *what* I offer."

As an interrogative pronoun. "*What* ails you?"

As a responsive pronoun, with one case. "I know *what* ails you."

As an adjective. "*What* news from Genoa?"

As an interjection. "*What!* take my money, and my life too!"

ELLIPSIS.

Ellipsis is the omission of words that must be supplied in parsing.

Article: "A noun or [a] pronoun." "The first and [the] last."

Adjective: "He is wiser than you are" [wise].

Noun: "At St. Paul's" [Church]. "A little to the right" [hand].

Pronoun: "Be [ye] seated." "This is the man [whom] I saw."

Verb: "He spoke, not I" [spoke]. [Rise] "Up, and [go] away."
"Myself [being] a refugee." "Let me [to be] alone."

Preposition: "Bring [to] me your slate."

Conjunction: "The way was long, [and] the wind was cold."

Phrase: "Few are more resolute than he" [is resolute].

Clause: "Where is he? — How can I tell" [where he is]?

INVERSION.

Inversion is some deviation from the most ordinary arrangement of words in sentences.

Logical or grammatical arrangement is that which the sense requires in parsing.

Rhetorical arrangement is some deviation from grammatical arrangement, for the sake of rhythm or force.

Rhetorically Arranged: "With tears my native shore I leave."

Grammatically Arranged: I leave my native shore with tears.

"Me glory summons to the martial scene."

Glory summons me to the martial scene.

"Through glades and glooms the mingled measure stole."

The mingled measure stole through glades and glooms.

"Fierce was the wind, and loud the thunder rolled."

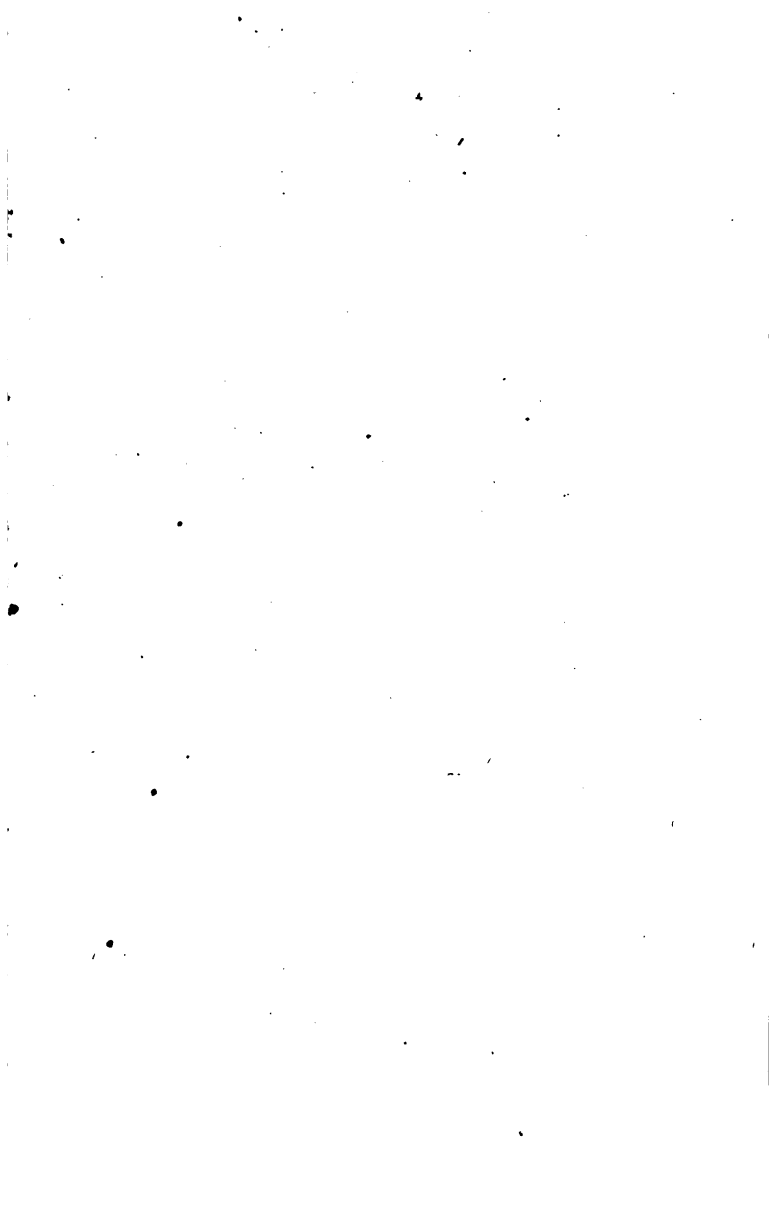
The wind was fierce, and the thunder rolled loud.

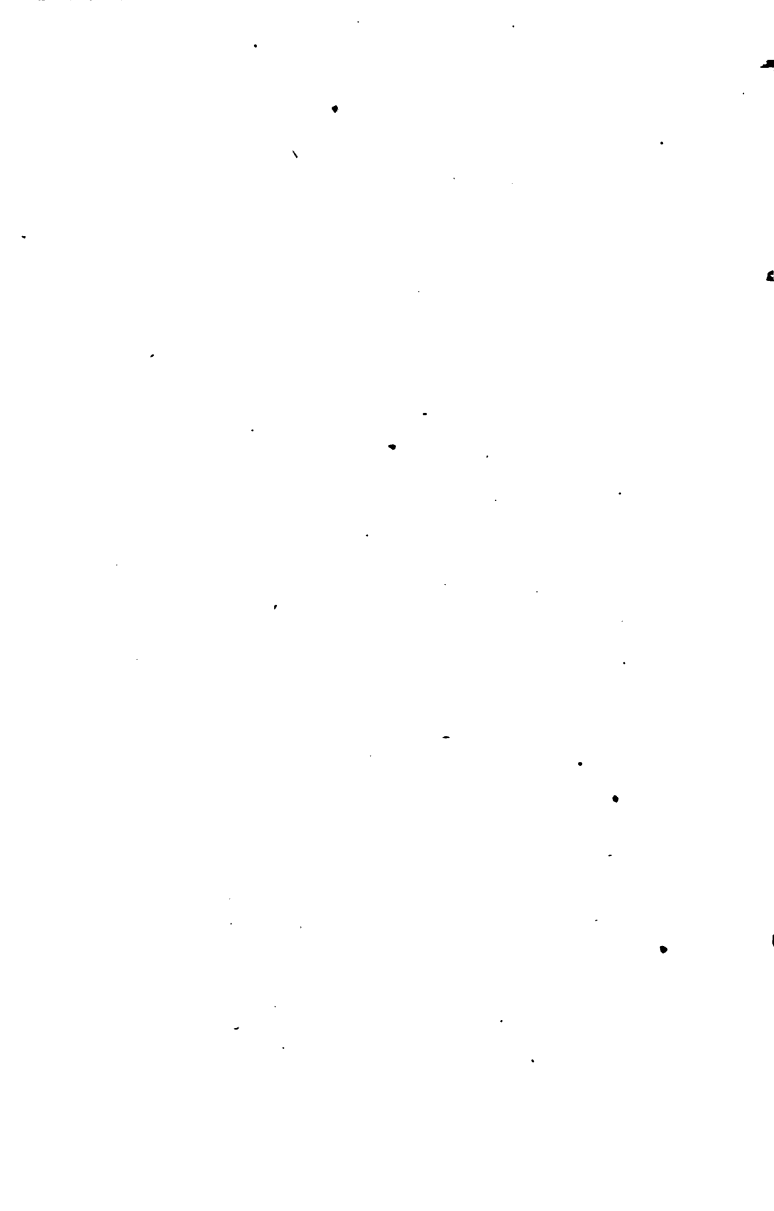
"Oh, what a situation I am placed in!" i. e., in what a situation.

"O Time! than gold more precious;" i. e., more precious than gold.

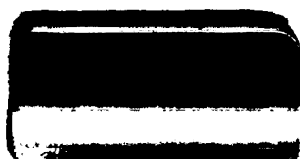
"The waters wash its base away;" i. e., wash away its base.

• "From peak to peak, the rattling crags among, leaps the live thunder."
The live thunder leaps from peak to peak, among the rattling crags.





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